C. Tudway.

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Octr 14th. 1823.

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY,

AND

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

WITH AN

APPENDIX,

AND VERY COPIOUS NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

BY

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PREFACE.

This volume, which, in spite of reluctant prejudice, has already obtained a large share of the public patronage, is the first of a projected Course of Mathematical Science. Many compendiums or elementary treatises have appeared—at different times, and of various merit; but there seemed still wanting, in our language, a work that should embrace the subject in its full extent,—that should unite theory with practice, and connect the ancient with the modern discoveries. The magnitude and difficulty of such a task might deter an individual from the attempt, if he were not deeply impressed with the importance of the undertaking, and felt his exertions to accomplish it animated by zeal, and supported by active perseverance.

The study of Mathematics holds forth two capital objects:—While it traces the beautiful relations of figure and quantity, it likewise accustoms the mind to the invaluable exercise of patient attention and accurate reasoning. Of these distinct

objects, the last is perhaps the most important in a course of liberal education. For this purpose, the Geometry of the Greeks is most powerfully recommended, as bearing the stamp of that acute people, and displaying the finest specimens of logical deduction. Some of its conclusions, indeed, might be reached by a sort of calculation; but such an artificial mode of procedure gives merely an apparent facility, and leaves no clear or permanent impression on the mind.

We should form a wrong estimate, however, did we consider the Elements of Euclid, with all its merits, as a finished production. That admirable work was composed at the period when Geometry was making its most rapid advances, and new prospects were opening on every side. No wonder that its structure should now appear loose and defective. In adapting it to the actual state of the science, I have therefore endeavoured carefully to retain the spirit of the original, but have sought to enlarge the basis, and to dispose the accumulated materials into a regular and more compact system. By simplifying the order of arrangement, I have materially abridged the labour of the student. The numerous additions that are incorporated in the text, so far from retarding, will rather facilitate his progress, by rendering more continuous the chain of demonstration.

The view which I have given of the nature of Proportion, in the Fifth Book, will contribute, I hope, to remove the chief difficulties attending that important subject. The Sixth Book, which exhibits the application of the Doctrine of Ratios, contains a copious selection of propositions, not only beautiful in themselves, but which pave the way to the higher branches of Geometry, or lead immediately to valuable practical results. The Appendix, without claiming the same degree of utility, will not perhaps be deemed the least interesting portion of the volume, since the ingenious resources which it discloses for the construction of certain problems are calculated to afford a very pleasing and instructive exercise.

The Elements of Trigonometry are as ample as my plan would allow. I have explained fully the properties of the lines about the circle, and the calculation of the trigonometrical tables; nor have I omitted any proposition which has a distinct reference to practice. Some of the problems annexed to the treatise are of essential consequence in marine surveying.

In the improvement of this edition, I have spared no trouble or expence. The text has been simplified and reduced to a shorter compass, by throwing such propositions as were less elementary into the Notes. Other Notes of an easier kind are intended chiefly to engage the attention

of the young student. In various parts of the work, the demonstrations are occasionally abbreviated. The Elements of Trigonometry are now much expanded, and brought to include whatever appears to be most valuable in recent practice. But the principal additions have been made in the Notes and Illustrations, which will be found to contain a great variety of useful and curious information. The more advanced student may peruse with advantage the historical and critical remarks; and some of the disquisitions, with the solutions of certain more difficult problems relative to trigonometry and geodesiacal operations, in which the modern analysis is but sparingly introduced, are of a nature sufficiently interesting to claim the notice of proficients in science. I have simplified, and materially enlarged the *formulæ* connected with trigonometrical computation; explained the art of surveying, in its different branches; and given reduced plans, blended with the narrative of the great operations lately carried on both in England and France. I have likewise shown a very simple method of calculating heights from barometrical observations, accompanied by illustrative sections; and I have been thence led to state the law of climate, as it is modified by elevation. On this attractive subject, I should have dwelt with pleasure, had the limits of the volume permitted.

To trace the silent progress of discovery, is at once interesting and instructive. I have therefore laboured to set in a clear light the Trigonometry of the Greeks and Arabians, and have carefully marked the successive steps by which this important branch of science was, in passing from ancient to modern times, advanced to perfection. In these critical inquiries, I have derived essential aid from the extensive and accurate researches of M. Delambre, whose learning, patience, and discernment, are above all praise. It has afforded me the highest satisfaction in finding the opinions I was led to form on several disputed points of scientific history generally to accord with the mature conclusions of that eminent philosopher.

In explaining the division of the circle, I have introduced some short tables, which will furnish an useful exercise to the student; and the examples I have given of the conversion of sexagesimals into decimals will show how much greater nicety the ancient Greeks had attained in their calculations than is commonly supposed. I have still farther enlarged the trigonometrical *formulæ*, and have applied the tables of sines and tangents to the solution of quadratics and the irreducible case of cubic equations. The successive attempts made, at different periods, to measure the extent of our globe are now distinctly related, and the most improved methods of conducting such geo-

graphical surveys are explained and exemplified, I presume, with sufficient detail. Other additions, either curious or illustrative, will occur in various parts of the work.

My original design was to exhibit, within the compass perhaps of five volumes, the Elements of Mathematical Science in their full extent, including the principles and application of the Higher Calculus. But, after due reflection, I have abandoned that aspiring project. There is unfortunately very little incitement to the publication of abstract works in this country; and after discharging the more pressingobligations which I had contracted, I shall consider my time as more agreeably and perhaps more beneficially employed, in pursuing without distraction the labyrinths of physical research. I might have foreseen that the indolence of teachers would always be opposed to the improvement of education; yet I have very lately revised, and somewhat enlarged, the Philosophy of Arithmetic, which I am convinced will form the most instructive introduction to Algebra and to the science of calculation in general. In a few weeks another volume will be delivered from the press, containing the tract on Geometrical Analysis, recast and augmented; the Geometry of Curve Lines, including not only a regular and complete system of the Conic Sections, but exhibiting the beautiful relations of those Higher Curves, ancient or modern, which either invite the application of

Algebra, or elucidate the properties of Mechanics and other branches of Natural Philosophy. In furtherance of my views, I intend likewise to compose, with all convenient speed, a treatise on the Geometry of Planes and Solids, which has of late years taken absolutely a new form on the Continent: It will embrace the Theory of Perspective, and comprise the Projection of the Sphere and Spherical Trigonometry.

The performance of this last task will fully discharge my engagements. But I rejoice to think that the completion of the Course may fall into better hands. My illustrious friend, Mr Ivory, will, I trust, be induced to rescue the national honour, and erect a durable monument to his own fame, by the composition of an original and luminous treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. As a preliminary to a work of such vast importance, we shall expect from him a logical digest of Algebra, which has been so long disfigured and abused. After the multitude of servile compilations that have been unceasingly obtruded on the English public, the discriminating eye will repose with delight on the harbinger of brighter prospects.

It is the nature of genuine science to advance in continual progression. Each step carries it still higher; new relations are descried; and the most distant objects seem gradually to approxi-

mate. But, while science thus enlarges its bounds, it likewise tends uniformly to simplicity and concentration. The discoveries of one age are, perhaps in the next, melted down into the mass of elementary truths. What are deemed at first merely objects of enlightened curiosity, become, in due time, subservient to the most important interests. Theory soon descends to guide and assist the operations of practice. To the geometrical speculations of the Greeks, we may distinctly trace whatever progress the moderns have been enabled to achieve in mechanics, navigation, and the various complicated arts of life. A refined analysis has unfolded the harmony of the celestial motions, and conducted the philosopher, through a maze of intricate phenomena, to the great laws appointed for the government of the Universe.

College of Edinburgh,
Nov. 1. 1820.

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY.

GEOMETRY is that branch of natural science which treats of bounded space.

Our knowledge concerning external objects is grounded entirely on the information received through the medium of the senses. The science of Physics considers Bodies as they actually exist, invested at once with all their various and peculiar qualities: Its researches are hence directed by that refined species of observation which is termed Experiment. But Geometry takes a more limited view; and, selecting only the generic property of *Magnitude*, it can safely pursue the most lengthened train of investigation, and arrive with perfect certainty at the remotest conclusion. It contemplates merely the forms which bodies

assume, and the spaces which they occupy. Geometry is thus founded likewise on external observation; but such observation is so familiar and obvious, that the primary notions which it furnishes might seem intuitive, and have often been regarded as innate. This science, proceeding from a basis of extreme simplicity, is therefore supereminently distinguished, by the luminous evidence which constantly attends every step of its progress.

PRINCIPLES.

In contemplating an external object, we can, by successive acts of abstraction, reduce the complex idea which arises in the mind into others that are successively simpler. *Body*, divested of all its essential characters, presents the idea of mere *surface*; a surface, considered apart from its peculiar qualities, exhibits only *linear boundaries*; and a line, omitting its continuity, leaves nothing in the imagination but the *points* which form its extremities. A solid is bounded by *surfaces*; a surface is circumscribed by *lines*; and a line is terminated by *points*. A point marks *position*; a line measures *distance*; and a surface exhibits *extension*. A line has only *length*; a surface has both *length* and *breadth*; and a solid combines all the three dimensions of *length*, *breadth*, and *thickness*.

The uniform tracing of a line which through its whole extent is stretched in the same direction, gives the idea of a *straight* line. No more than one straight line can therefore join two points; and if a straight line be conceived to turn like an axis about both extremities, none of its intermediate points will change their position.

From our idea of a straight line is derived that of a *plane* surface, which, though more complex, has a *like* uniformity of character. A straight line connecting any two points situate in a plane, lies wholly on the surface; and consequently planes must, in every way, admit a mutual and perfect application.

Two points ascertain the position of a straight line; for the line may be conceived to continue to turn about one of the points till it falls upon the other. But to determine the position of a plane, it requires *three* points; because a plane touching the straight line which joins two of the points, may be made to revolve, till it meets the third point.

The separation or opening of two straight lines at their point of intersection, constitutes an *angle*. If we obtain the idea of *distance*, or linear extent, from the inspection of *progressive* motion, we derive that of *divergence*, or angular magnitude, from the consideration of *revolving* motion.

GEOMETRY is divided into Plane and Solid; the former confining its views to the properties of space figured on the same plane; the latter embracing the relations of different planes or surfaces, and of the solids which these may describe or terminate. In the following definitions, therefore, the points and lines are all considered as existing in the same plane.

BOOK I.

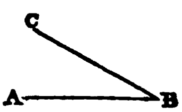
DEFINITIONS.

1. A *crooked* line is that which consists of straight lines not continued in the same direction.

2. A *curved* line is that of which no portion is a straight line.

3. The straight lines which contain an *angle* are termed its *sides*, and their point of origin, or intersection, its *vertex*.

To abridge the reference, it is usual to denote an angle by tracing over its sides; the letter at the vertex, which is common to them both, being put in the middle. Thus the angle contained by the straight lines AB and BC, or the opening formed by turning BA about the point B into the position BC, is named ABC or CBA.

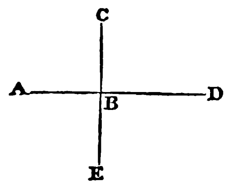


4. A *right angle* is the fourth part of the entire circuit or revolution formed by a straight line.

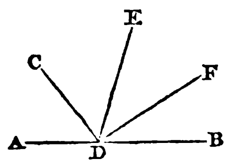
It is manifest that all right angles, being derived from the same fundamental measure, must be equal to each other.

If a straight line CB stand at equal angles CBA and CBD on another straight line AD, and if the surface ACD be con-

ceived laid over towards the opposite side, the point B and the line AD remaining in their place; CB will, in this new position EB, make angles EBA and EBD equal to the former, and therefore all of them equal to each other. But the four angles ABC, CBD, DBE, and EBA constitute, about the point B, a complete revolution; or the line BA in forming them, by its successive openings, would return into its original place,—and consequently each of those angles is a *right angle.*

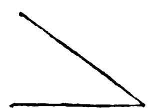


The angle, or opening, contained by the opposite portions DA and DB of a straight line is hence equal to two right angles; and, for the same reason, all the angles ADC, CDE, EDF, and FDB, formed at the point D on the same side of the straight line AB, are together equal to two right angles.



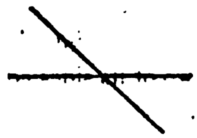
5. The sides of a right angle are said to be *perpendicular* to each other.

6. An *acute* angle is less than a right angle.



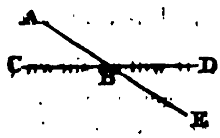
7. An *obtuse* angle is greater than a right angle.

8. One side of an angle forms with the other side produced a *supplemental* or *exterior angle.*



9. A *vertical* angle is formed by the production of both its sides.

10. The inverted divergence of the two sides of an angle, or the defect of the angle from four right angles, is named the *reverse* angle.



The angle EBD is *vertical* to ABC, ABD is *supplemental* or *exterior* to it, and the angle made up of ABD, DBE, and EBC, or the opening which would be formed by the regression of AB over the points D and E, into the position BC, is the *reverse* angle.

It is apparent that vertical angles, or those formed by the same lines in opposite directions, must be equal; for the angles ABC and ABD which stand on the straight line CD, being equal to two right angles, are equal to ABD and DBE which stand on AE, and, omitting the common angle ABD, there remains ABC equal to DBE.

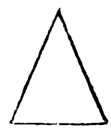
11. Two straight lines are said to be *inclined* to each other, if they meet when produced; and the angle so formed is called their *inclination*.

12. Straight lines which have no mutual inclination, are termed *parallel*.

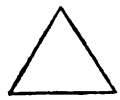
13. A *figure* is a plane surface included by a linear boundary called its *perimeter*.

14. Of rectilineal figures, the *triangle* is contained by *three* straight lines.

15. An *isosceles* triangle is that which has two of its sides equal.



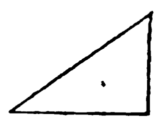
16. An *equilateral* triangle is that which has all its sides equal.



17. A triangle whose sides are unequal, is named *scalene*.

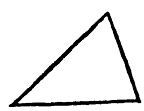
It will be shewn (I. 9. cor.) that every triangle has at least two acute angles. The third angle may therefore, by its character, serve to discriminate a triangle.

18. A *right-angled* triangle is that which has a right angle.



19. An *obtuse* angled triangle, is that which has an obtuse angle.

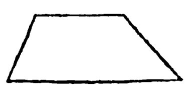
20. An *acute* angled triangle is that which has *all* its angles acute.

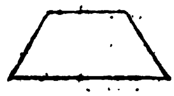


21. Any side of a triangle may be called its *base*, and the opposite angular point its *vertex*.

22. A *quadrilateral* figure is contained by *four* straight lines.

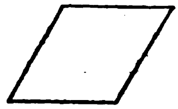
23. Of quadrilateral figures, a *trapezoid* (1) has two parallel sides:



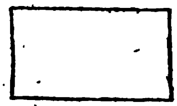


24. A *trapezium* (2) has two of its sides parallel, and the other two equal, though not parallel.

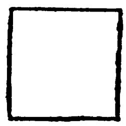
25. A *rhomboid* (3) has its opposite sides equal:



26. A *rhombus* (4) has all its sides equal:

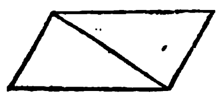


27. An *oblong*, or *rectangle*, (5) has a right angle, and its opposite sides equal:



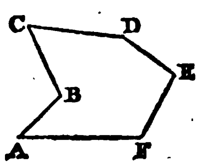
28. A *square* (6) has a right angle, and all its sides equal:

29. A quadrilateral figure, of which the opposite sides are parallel, is called a *parallelogram*.



30. The straight line which joins obliquely the opposite angular points of a quadrilateral figure, is named a *diagonal*.

31. If an angle of a rectilineal figure be less than two right angles, it will protrude, and is called *salient*; if it be greater than two right angles, it will make a sinuosity, and is termed *re-entrant*.



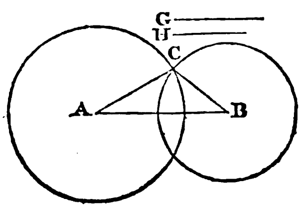
Thus the angle ABC is re-entrant, and the rest of the angles of the polygon ABCDEF are all salient at the points A, C, D, E, and F.

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.

To construct a triangle, of which the three sides are given.

Let AB represent the base, and G, H two sides of the triangle which it is required to construct.

From the centre A, with the distance G, describe a circle; and, from the centre B, with the distance H, describe another circle, meeting the former in the point C: join AC and BC, and ACB is the triangle required.



Because all the radii of the same circle are equal, AC is equal to G; and, for the same reason, BC is equal to H. Consequently the triangle ACB answers the conditions of the problem.

The limiting circles, after mutually intersecting, must obviously diverge from each other, till, crossing the extension of the base AB, they return again and meet below it; thus marking two positions for the required triangle.

Corollary. If the radii G and H be equal to each other, the triangle will evidently be isosceles; and if those lines be likewise equal to the base AB, the triangle must be equilateral.

A PROPOSITION is a distinct portion of abstract science: It is either a *problem* or a *theorem*.

A PROBLEM proposes to effect some combination.

A THEOREM advances some truth, which is to be established.

A *problem* requires *solution*, a *theorem* wants *demonstration*; the former implies some operation, and the latter generally needs a previous construction.

A *direct* demonstration proceeds from the premises, by a regular deduction.

An *indirect* demonstration attains its object, by showing that any other hypothesis than the one advanced would involve a contradiction, or lead to an absurd conclusion.

A subordinate property, included in a demonstration, is sometimes, for the sake of unity, detached, and then it forms a LEMMA.

A COROLLARY is an obvious consequence resulting from a proposition.

A SCHOLIUM is an excursive remark on the nature and application of a train of reasoning.

An HYPOTHESIS is a condition premised, or a supposition advanced.

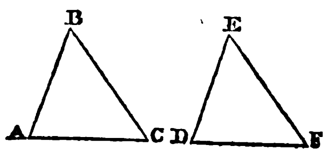
The operations in Geometry suppose the drawing of straight lines and the description of circles, or they require in practice the use of the rule and compasses.

PROP. III. THEOR.

Two triangles are equal, if two sides and the angle contained by these in the one be respectively equal to two sides and the contained angle in the other.

Let ABC and DEF be two triangles, of which the side AB is equal to DE, the side BC to EF, and the angle ABC contained by the former equal to DEF which is contained by the latter: These triangles are equal.

For let the triangle ABC be applied to DEF: The vertex B being placed on E, and the side BA on ED, the extremity A must fall upon D, since AB is equal to DE. And because the angle or divergence ABC is equal to DEF, and the side AB coincides with DE, the other side BC must lie in the same direction with EF, and being of the same length, must terminate with it; and consequently, the points A and C resting on D and F, the straight lines AC and DF will also coincide. Wherefore, the one triangle being thus perfectly adapted to the other, a general equality must obtain between them: The third sides AC and DF are hence equal, and the angles BAC, BCA opposite to BC and BA are equal respectively to EDF and EFD, which the corresponding sides EF and ED subtend.



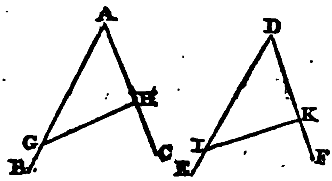
Schol. By applying this proposition to practice, the mutual distance may be found between two remote objects which have their communication obstructed.

PROP. IV. PROB.

At a point in a straight line, to make an angle equal to a given angle.

At the point D in the given straight line DE, to form an angle equal to the given angle BAC.

In the sides AB and AC of the given angle, assume two points G and H, join GH, from DE cut off DI equal to AG, and on DI constitute (I. 1.) a triangle DKI, having its sides DK and IK equal to AH and GH:

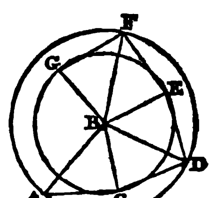


IDK or EDF is the angle required.

For all the sides of the triangles GAH and IDK being respectively equal, the angles opposite to the equal sides must be likewise equal (I. 2.), and consequently IDK is equal to GAH.

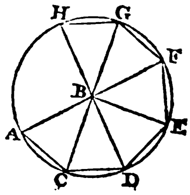
Cor. If the segments AG, AH be taken equal, the construction will be rendered simpler and more commodious.

Schol. By the successive application of this problem an angle may be continually multiplied. Two circles CEG and ADF being described from the vertex B of the given angle with radii BC and BA equal to its sides, and the base AC being repeatedly inserted between those circumferences; a multitude of triangles will be thus formed, all of them equal to the original tri-



angle ABC. Consequently the angle ABD is double of ABC, ABE triple, ABF quadruple, ABG quintuple, &c.

If the sides AB and BC of the given angle be supposed equal, only one circle would be required, a series of equal isosceles triangles being constituted about its centre. It is evident that this addition is without limit, and that the angle so produced may continue to spread out, and its opening side even make repeated revolutions.

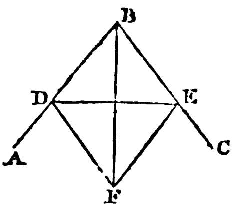


PROP. V. PROB.

To bisect a given angle.

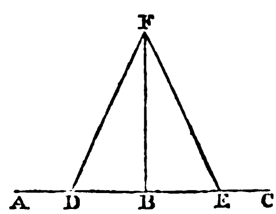
Let ABC be an angle which it is required to bisect.

In the side AB take any point D, and from BC cut off BE equal to BD; join DE, on which construct (I. 1.) the isosceles triangle DFE, and draw the straight line BF: The angle ABC is bisected by BF.



For the two triangles DBF and EBF, having the side DB equal to EB, the side DF to EF, and BF common to both, are (I. 2.) equal, and consequently the angle DBF is equal to EBF.

Cor. Hence the mode of drawing a perpendicular from a given point B in the straight line AC; for the angle ABC, which the opposite segments BA and BC make with each other, being equal to two right angles, the straight line that bisects it must be the perpendicular required. It is therefore only requisite to bi-



sect this angle. Take BD equal to BE, and construct the isosceles triangle DFE; the straight line BF, which joins the vertex of the triangle, is perpendicular to AC.

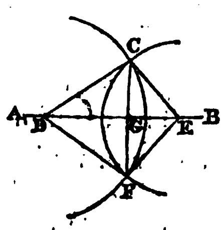
Schol. In the general construction, the isosceles triangle DFE may lie either below or above the base DE; but if it were made equal to DBE, and the vertex F coincided with B, the construction would be rendered indeterminate.

PROP. VI. PROB.

To let fall a perpendicular upon a straight line, from a given point above it.

From the point C, to let fall a perpendicular upon the given straight line AB.

In AB take, any where towards A, the point D, and with the distance DC describe a circle; and, in the same line, take towards B another point E, and with the distance EC describe a second circle intersecting the former in the point F; join CF, crossing the given line at G: CG is perpendicular to AB.

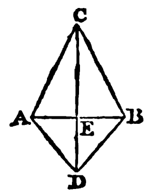


For the straight lines DC, DF and EC, EF being joined, the triangles DCE and DFE have the side DC equal to DF, EC to EF, and DE common to them both; whence (I. 2.) the angle CDE or CDG is equal to FDE or FDG. And because, in the triangles DCG and DFG, the side DC is equal to DF, DG common, and the contained angles CDG and FDG are proved to be equal; these subordinate triangles are (I. 3.) equal, and consequently the angle DGC is equal to DGF, and each of them a right angle, or the line CG is perpendicular to AB.

PROP. VII. PROB.

To bisect a given finite straight line.

Let it be required to bisect the straight line AB, which is terminated by the points A and B. Upon AB construct the two opposite isosceles triangles (I. 1.) ACB and ADB, and join their vertices C and D by a straight line cutting AB at the point E: the straight line AB is bisected in E.

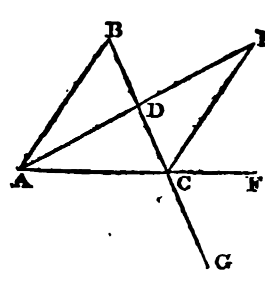


For the sides AC and AD of the triangle CAD being respectively equal to BC and BD of the triangle CBD, and the side CD common to them both; these triangles (I. 2.) are equal, and hence the angle ACD or ACE is equal to BCD or BCE. Again, the inferior triangles ACE and BCE, having the side AC equal to BC, CE common, and the contained angle ACE equal to BCE, are (I. 3.) equal, and consequently the base AE is equal to BE.

PROP. VIII. THEOR.

The exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either of its interior opposite angles.

The exterior angle BCF, formed by producing a side AC of the triangle ABC, is greater than either of the opposite interior angles CAB and CBA.



For bisect the side BC in the point D (I. 7.), draw AD, and produce it until DE be equal to it, and join EC.

The triangles ADB and EDC have, by construction, the side DA equal to DE, the side DB to DC, and the vertical angle BDA equal to CDE; these triangles are, therefore, equal (I. 3.), and the angle DCE is equal to DBA. But since CF must obviously lie between CB and CF, the exterior angle BCF is greater than DCE; it is consequently greater than DBA or CBA.

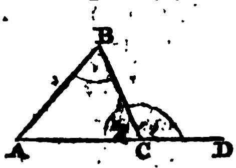
In like manner, it may be shown, that if BC be produced, the exterior angle ACG is greater than the interior angle CAB. But ACG is equal to its vertical angle BCF, and hence BCF must be greater than either of the interior angles CBA or CAB.

Cor. Hence all the exterior angles of a triangle are greater than the interior, and likewise greater than three right angles. For each exterior with its adjacent interior angle being equal to two right angles, the exterior angles taken together must exceed the half of six right angles.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

Any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

The two angles BAC and BCA of the triangle ABC are together less than two right angles.



For produce the common side AC. And, by the last proposition, the exterior angle BCD is greater than BAC, add BCA to each, and the two angles BCD and BCA are greater than BAC and BCA, or BAC and BCA are together less than BCD and BCA, that is, less than two right angles (Def. 4).

Cor. Hence a triangle can only have one right or obtuse angle, its two remaining angle being always acute; wherefore that single angle may serve to designate the triangle.

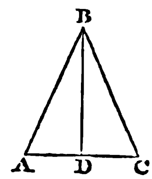
PROP. X. THEOR.

The angles at the base of an isosceles triangle are equal.

The angles BAC and BCA at the base of the isosceles triangle ABC are equal.

For draw (I. 5.) BD bisecting the vertical angle ABC.

Because, by hypothesis, BA is equal to BC, the side BD common to the two triangles BDA and BDC, and the angles ABD and CBD contained by them are equal; these triangles are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle BAD is equal to BCD.



Cor. Hence every equilateral triangle is also equiangular.

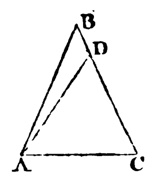
PROP. XI. THEOR.

If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides opposite to them are likewise equal.

Let the triangle ABC have two equal angles BCA and BAC; the opposite sides AB and BC are also equal.

For if the side AB be not equal to CB, let it be equal to some portion CD, and join AD.

Comparing now the triangles BAC and DCA, the side AB is by supposition equal to CD, AC is common to both, and the contained angle BAC is equal to DCA; the two triangles (I. 3.) are, therefore, equal. But this conclusion is manifestly absurd. To suppose then the inequality of AB and BC, would



involve a contradiction; and consequently those sides must be equal.

Cor. Hence every equiangular triangle is also equilateral.

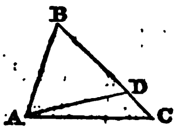
Schol. By the application of this proposition, the distance of an object inaccessible on one side may in some cases be measured.

PROP. XII. THEOR.

In any triangle, that angle is the greater which lies opposite to a greater side.

If a side BC of the triangle ABC be greater than BA; the opposite angle BAC is greater than BCA.

For make BD equal to BA, and join AD. The angle CAB is evidently greater than DAB: but since BA is equal to BD, this angle DAB (I. 10.) is equal to ADB; and consequently CAB is greater than ADB. Again, the angle ADB, being an exterior angle of the triangle CAD, is (I. 8.) greater than either of the interior angles ACD, or ACB; wherefore the angle CAB is much greater than ACB.

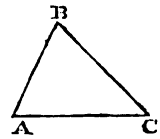


PROP. XIII. THEOR.

That side of a triangle is the greater which subtends a greater angle.

If, in the triangle ABC, the angle CAB be greater than ACB; its opposite side BC is greater than AB.

For if BC be not greater than AB, it must be either equal or less than AB. But it cannot be equal to AB, because the angle CAB would then be equal to ACB (I. 10.); nor can BC be less than AB, for then AB would be greater than BC, and consequently (I. 12.) the angle ACB would be greater than CAB, or CAB less than ACB, which is absurd. The side BC being thus neither equal to AB, nor less than it, must therefore be greater than AB.



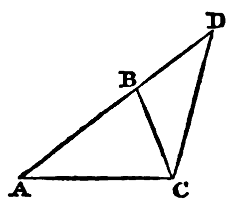
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

Any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side.

The two sides AB and BC of the triangle ABC are together greater than the third side AC.

For produce AB until DB be equal to the side BC, and join CD.

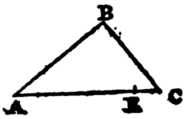
Because BC is equal to BD, the angle BCD is equal to BDC (I. 10.); but the angle ACD is obviously greater than BCD, and therefore greater than BDC, or ADC; consequently the opposite side AD is greater than AC (I. 13.); and since AD is equal to AB and BD; or to AB and BC, the two sides AB and BC are together greater than the third side AC.



PROP. XV. THEOR.

The difference between any two sides of a triangle is less than the third side.

Let the side AC be greater than AB, and from it cut off a part AE equal to AB; the remainder EC is less than the third side BC.



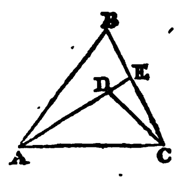
For the two sides AB and BC are together greater than AC (I. 14.); take away the equal lines AB and AE, and there remains BC greater than EC, or EC is less than BC.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

Two straight lines drawn to a point within a triangle from the extremities of its base, are together less than the sides of the triangle, but contain a greater angle.

The straight lines AD and CD, projected from the extremities of the base AC to a point D within the triangle ABC, are together less than the sides AB and CB of the triangle, but contain an angle ADC, which is greater than ABC.

For produce AD to meet CB in E. The two sides AB and BE of the triangle ABE are greater than the third side AE (I. 14.); add EC to each, and AB, BE, EC, or the sides AB and BC, are greater than AE and EC. But the sides CE and ED of the triangle DEC are (I. 14.) greater than



DC, and consequently CE, ED, together with DA, or CE and EA, are greater than CD and DA. Wherefore the sides AB and BC, being greater than AE and EC, which are themselves greater than AD and DC, must be still greater than AD and DC, or the lines AD and DC are less than AB and BC, the sides of the triangle.

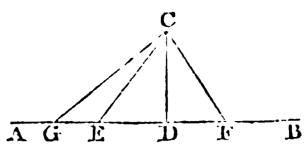
Again, the angle ADC, being the exterior angle of the triangle DCE, is greater than DEC (I. 8.); and, for the same reason, DEC is greater than ABE, the opposite interior angle of the triangle EAB. Consequently ADC is still greater than ABE or ABC.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

If straight lines be drawn from the same point to another straight line, the perpendicular is the shortest of them all; the lines equidistant from it on both sides are equal; and those more remote are greater than such as are nearer.

Of the straight lines CG, CE, CD, and CF drawn from a given point C to the straight line AB, the perpendicular CD is the least, the equidistant lines CE and CF are equal, but the remoter line CG is greater than either of these two.

For the right angle CDE, equal to CDF, is (I. 8.) greater than the interior angle CFD of the triangle DCF, and consequently the opposite side CF is (I. 13.) greater than CD, or CD is less than CF.



But if ED be equal to FD,

CD being common to the two triangles ECD, and FCD, and the contained angles CDE and CDF equal; these triangles (I. 3.) are equal, and consequently their bases CE and CF are equal.

Again, because GCD is a right-angled triangle, the angle CGD or CGE is (I. 9. cor.) acute, and, for the same reason, the angle CED of the triangle CDE is acute, and consequently its adjacent angle CEG is obtuse. Wherefore CEG, being greater than a right angle, is still greater than CGE, and the opposite side CG must be greater (I. 13.) than CE.

Cor. Hence only a single perpendicular CD can be let fall from the same point C upon a given straight line AB; and hence also a pair only of equal straight lines greater than CD can at once be extended from C to AB, making on the same side, the one an obtuse angle CEA, and the other an acute angle CFA. As the distance between two points, or the shortest communication, is the straight line which joins them; so the distance from a point to a straight line is the perpendicular let fall upon it.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

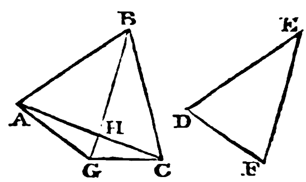
If two sides of one triangle be respectively equal to those of another, but contain a greater angle; the base also of the former will be greater than that of the latter.

In the triangles ABC and DEF, let the sides AB and BC be equal to DE and EF, but the angle ABC greater than DEF; then is the base AC likewise greater than DF.

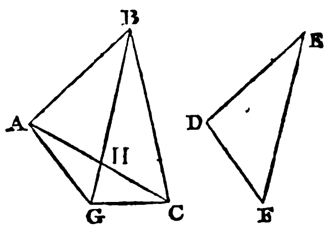
For, suppose AB one of the sides to be not greater than the other side BC or EF; draw BG equal to EF, and (I. 4.) making an angle ABG equal to DEF, join AG and GC.

Because AB and BG are equal to DE and EF, and their contained angle ABG is equal to DEF; the triangles ABG and DEF (I. 3.) are equal, and therefore have equal bases AG and DF.

Now, let the triangles ABC and DEF be isosceles. Since, by hypothesis, the side AB is equal to BC, the angle BAC (I. 10.) is equal to BCA; but (I. 8.) the angle BHC is greater than the interior angle BAH or BCH, and consequently (I. 13.) the side BC or BG is greater than BH, or the point G lies beyond H.



Next, suppose the side BC or EF to be greater than AB or DE. Wherefore (I. 12.) the angle BAC is greater than BCA; but (I. 8.) the exterior angle BHC of the triangle ABH is greater than BAH or BAC, and hence still greater than BCA or BCH; consequently the side BC or EF is (I. 13.) greater than BH.



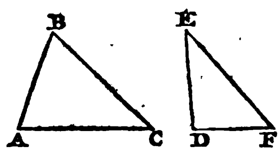
In every case, therefore, the point G must lie below the base AC. But the triangle GBC being isosceles by construction, its angles BGC and BCG (I. 10.) are equal. Whence the angle AGC, being greater than BGC or BCG, which again is greater than ACG, must be still greater than ACG; and therefore the opposite side AC is (I. 13.) greater than AG or DF.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

If two sides of one triangle be respectively equal to those of another, but stand on a greater base; the angle contained by the former will be likewise greater than what is contained by the latter.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF have the sides AB and BC equal to DE and EF, but the base AC greater than DF; the vertical angle ABC is greater than DEF.

For if ABC be not greater than the angle DEF, it must either be equal or less. But it cannot be equal to DEF, for the sides AB, BC being then equal to DE, EF, and containing equal angles, the base AC would (I. 3.) be equal to DF, which is contrary to the hypothesis. Still more absurd it would be to suppose the angle ABC less than DEF, since the triangles BAC and EDF, having their sides AB, BC equal to DE, EF, but the contained angle ABC less than DEF, or DEF greater than ABC, the base DF would, from the preceding proposition, be greater than AC, or AC would be less than DF.

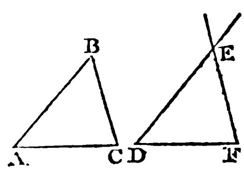


PROP. XX. THEOR.

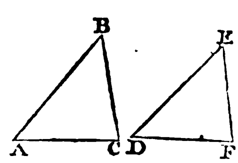
Two triangles are equal, which have two angles and a corresponding side in the one respectively equal to those in the other.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF have the angle BAC equal to EDF, the angle BCA to EFD, and a side of the one equal to a side of the other, whether it be interjacent or opposite to those equal angles; the triangles will be equal.

First, let the equal sides be AC and DF, which are interjacent to the equal angles in both triangles. Apply the triangle ABC to DEF; the point A being laid on D, and the straight line AC on DF, the other extremities C and F must coincide, since those lines are equal. And because the angle BAC is equal to EDF, and the side AC is applied to DF, the other side AB must lie along DE; and, for the same reason, the angles BCA and EFD being equal, the side CB must lie along FE. Wherefore the point B, which is common to both the lines AB and CB, will be found likewise in both DE and FE; that is, it must fall upon the corresponding vertex E. The two triangles ABC and DEF, thus mutually adapting, are hence entirely equal.



Next, let the equal sides be AB and DE, which are opposite to the equal angles BCA and EFD. The triangle ABC being laid on DEF, the sides AB and AC of the angle BAC will apply to DE and DF, the sides of the equal angle EDF; and since AB is equal to DE, the points B and E must coincide; but by hypothesis, the angles BCA and EFD being equal, BC must adapt itself to EF, for otherwise one of those angles becoming the exterior angle of a secondary triangle, would (I. 8.) be greater than the other.



Whence the triangles ABC, DEF are entirely coincident, and have those sides equal which subtend equal angles.

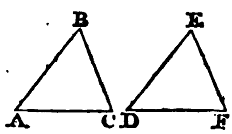
Schol. By the application of the first case, where the sides lying between the equal angles are equal, the distance of an inaccessible object can be measured in all cases.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

Two triangles are equal if two sides and a corresponding opposite angle be equal in both, and the other opposite angles have the same character.

In the triangles ABC and DEF, let the side AB be equal to DE, BC to EF, and the angles BAC, EDF, opposite to BC, EF, be also equal; the triangles themselves are equal, if the other angles BCA and EFD opposite to AB and DE be of the same character, or at once right, or acute, or obtuse.

For, the triangle ABC being applied to DEF, the angle BAC will adapt itself to EDF since they are equal; and the point B must coincide with E, because the side AB is equal to DE. But the other equal sides BC and EF, now stretching from the same point E towards DF, must likewise coincide; for if the angle at C or F be right, there can exist no more than one perpendicular EF (I. 17. cor.); and, in like manner, if this angle at F be either obtuse or acute, the line EF, which forms it, can, for the same reason, have only one corresponding position. Whence, in each of these three cases, the triangle ABC admits of a perfect adaptation with DEF.

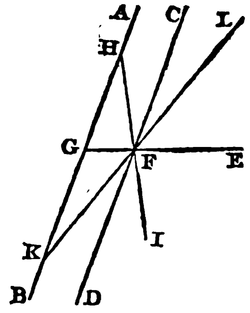


PROP. XXII. THEOR.

If a straight line fall upon two parallel straight lines, it will make the alternate angles equal, the exterior angle equal to the interior opposite one, and the two interior angles on the same side together equal to two right angles.

Let the straight line EFG fall upon the parallels AB and CD; the alternate angles AGF and DFG are equal, the exterior angle EFC is equal to the interior angle EGA, and the interior angles CFG and AGF on the same side are together equal to two right angles.

For conceive a straight line, produced both ways from F, to turn about that point; it will first cut the extended line AB above G towards A, and will in its progress afterwards meet this line on the other side below G towards B. In the former position IFH, the angle EFH is the exterior angle of the triangle FHG, and therefore greater than FGH or EGA (I. 8.) But in the latter position LFK, the exterior angle EFL is equal to its vertical angle GFK in the triangle FKG, and to which the angle FGA is exterior; consequently (I. 8.) FGA is greater than EFL, or the angle EFL is less than FGA or EGA. When the incident line EFG, therefore, meets AB above the point G, it makes an exterior angle EFH *greater* than EGA; and when it meets AB below that point, it makes an exterior angle EFL, which is *less* than the same



angle. But in the transition from greater to less, a varying magnitude must evidently pass through the intermediate limit of equality. Whence there is a single position CD, in which the line revolving about the point F makes the exterior angle EFC *equal* to the interior EGA, and at the same instant of time neither meets AB towards the one part or the other, and is therefore parallel to it.

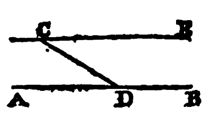
And now, since EFC is proved to be equal to EGA, and is also equal to the vertical angle GFD; the alternate angles FGA and GFD are equal. Again, because GFD and FGA are equal, add the angle FGB to each, and the two angles GFD and FGB are equal to FGA and FGB; but the angles FGA and FGB, on the same side of AB, are equal to two right angles, and consequently the interior angles GFD and FGB are likewise equal to two right angles.

Cor. Since CD has an individual position, or only *one* straight line can be drawn through the point F parallel to AB, it follows that the converse of the proposition is likewise true, and that those three properties of parallel lines are so many *criteria* for the distinguishing of parallels.

PROP. XXIII. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line parallel to a given straight line.

To draw, through the point C, a straight line parallel to AB.



In AB take any point D, join CD, and at the point C make (I. 4.) an angle DCE equal to CDA; the line CE is parallel to AB.

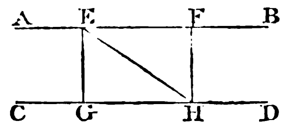
For the angles CDA and DCE, thus formed equal, are the alternate angles which CD makes with the straight lines CE and AB, and therefore, by the corollary to the last proposition, these lines are parallel.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

Parallel lines are equidistant, and equidistant straight lines are parallel.

The perpendiculars EG, FH, let fall from any points E, F in the straight line AB, upon its parallel CD, are equal; and if these perpendiculars be equal, the straight lines AB and CD are parallel.

For join EH: and because each of the interior angles EGH and FHG is a right angle, they are together equal to two right angles, and consequently the perpendiculars EG and FH are (I. 22. cor.) parallel to each other; wherefore (I. 22.) the alternate angles HEG and EHF are equal. But, EF being parallel to GH,



the alternate angles EHG and HEF are likewise eqnal; and thus the two triangles HGE and HFE, having the angles HEG and EHG respectively equal to EHF and HEF, and the side EH common to both, are (I. 20.) equal, and hence the side EG is equal to FH.

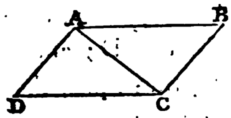
Again, if the perpendiculars EG and FH be equal, the two triangles EGH and EFH, having the side EG equal to FH, EH common, and the contained angle HEG equal to EHF, are (I. 3.) equal, and therefore the angle EHG equal to HEF, and (I. 22.) the straight line AB parallel to CD.

PROP. XXV. THEOR.

The opposite sides of a rhomboid are parallel.

If the opposite sides AB, DC, and AD, BC of the quadrilateral figure ABCD be equal, they are likewise parallel.

For draw the diagonal AC. And because AB is equal to DC, BC to AD, and AC is common to the two triangles ABC and ADC; these triangles are (I. 2.) equal. Consequently the angle ACD is equal to CAB, and therefore the side AB of the rhomboid is (I. 22. cor.) parallel to CD; and, for the same reason, the angle CAD being equal to ACB, the side AD is parallel to BC.



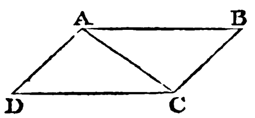
Cor. Hence the angles of a square or rectangle are all of them right angles; for the opposite sides, being equal by hypothesis, are parallel; and if the angle at A be right, the other interior one at B is also a right angle (I. 22.), and consequently the angles at C and D, opposite to these, are also right angles. On this proposition depends the construction of the instrument called in Practical Geometry a *Parallel Ruler*.

PROP. XXVI. THEOR.

The opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram are equal.

Let the quadrilateral figure ABCD have the sides AB and BC parallel to CD and AD; these are respectively equal, and so are likewise the opposite angles at A and C, and at B and D.

For join AC. Because AB is parallel to CD, the alternate angles BAC and ACD are (I. 22.) equal; and since AD is parallel to BC, the alternate angles ACB and CAD are also equal. Wherefore the triangles ABC and ADC, having the angles CAB and ACB equal to ACD and CAD, and the interjacent side AC common to both, are (I. 20.) equal. Consequently, the side AB is equal to CD, and the side BC to AD; and these opposite sides of the rhomboid being thus equal, the opposite angles (I. 25.) must be likewise equal.



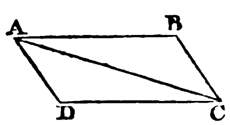
Cor. Hence the diagonal divides a rhomboid or parallelogram into two equal triangles.

PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

If the parallel sides of a trapezoid be equal, the other sides are likewise equal and parallel.

Let the sides AB and DC be equal and parallel; the other sides AD and BC are also equal and parallel.

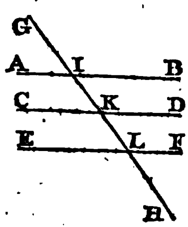
For draw the diagonal AC. Because AB is parallel to CD, the alternate angles CAB and ACD are (I. 22.) equal; and the triangles ABC and ADC, having the side AB equal to CD, AC common to both, and the contained angle CAB equal to ACD, are, therefore, equal (I. 3.). Whence the side BC is equal to AD, and the angle ACB equal to CAD; but these angles being alternate, BC must be parallel to AD (I. 22. cor.)



PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

Lines parallel to the same straight line, are parallel to each other.

If the straight line AB be parallel to CD, and CD parallel to EF; then is AB parallel to EF.



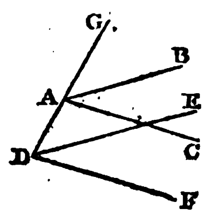
For let a straight line GH cut these lines.

And because AB is parallel to CD, the exterior angle GIA is equal (I. 22.) to the interior GKC; and since CD is parallel to EF, this angle GKC is, for the same reason, equal to GLE. Therefore the angle GIA is equal to GLE, and consequently AB is parallel to EF (I. 22. cor.)

PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

Straight lines drawn parallel to the sides of an angle, contain an equal angle.

If the straight lines AB, AC be parallel to DE, DF; the angle BAC is equal to EDF.



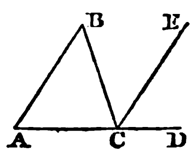
For draw the straight line GAD through the vertices. And since AC is parallel to DF, the exterior angle GAC is (I. 22.) equal to GDF; and, for the same reason, GAB is equal to GDE; there consequently remains the angle BAC equal to EDF.

PROP. XXX. THEOR.

An exterior angle of a triangle is equal to both its opposite interior angles, and all the interior angles of a triangle are together equal to two right angles.

The exterior angle BCD, formed by the production of the side AC of the triangle ABC, is equal to the two opposite interior angles CAB and CBA, and all the interior angles CAB, CBA and BCA of the triangle are together equal to two right angles.

For, through the point C, draw (I. 23.) the straight line CE parallel to AB. And, AB being parallel to CE, the interior angle BAC is (I. 22.) equal to the exterior one ECD; and, for the same reason, the alternate angle ABC is equal to BCE. Wherefore the two angles CAB and ABC are equal to DCE and ECB, or to the whole exterior angle BCD.



Again, to this exterior angle BCD, and to the two interior angles CAB and ABC, add the adjacent angle BCA, and the angles BCD and BCA on the same side of the straight line AD, that is, two right angles, are equal to all the interior angles of the triangle ABC.

Cor. 1. Hence the two acute angles of a right angled triangle are together equal to one right angle; and hence each angle of an equilateral triangle is two-third parts of a right angle.

Cor. 2. Hence if a triangle have its exterior angle, and one of its opposite interior angles, double of those in an-

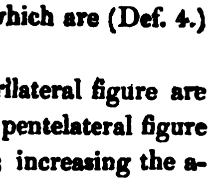
other triangle; its remaining opposite interior angle will also be double of the corresponding angle in the other.

Schol. On the second corollary depends the construction of that invaluable reflecting angular instrument, called Hadley's quadrant or sextant.

PROP. XXXI. THEOR.

The interior angles of any rectilineal figure are together equal to twice as many right angles (abating four from the amount) as the figure has sides.

For assume a point O within the figure, and draw straight lines OA, OB, OC, OD, and OE, to the several corners. It is obvious, that the figure is thus resolved into as many triangles as it has sides, and the aggregate angles must, by the last proposition, be equal to twice as many right angles. But the angles at the bases of these triangles constitute the internal angles of the figure. Consequently, from the whole amount, there is to be deducted the vertical angles about the point O, which are (Def. 4.) equal to four right angles.



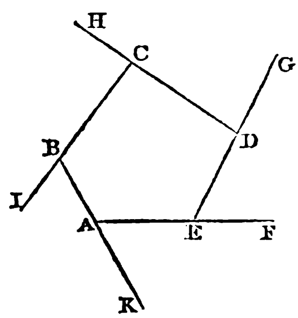
Cor. Hence all the angles of a quadrilateral figure are equal to four right angles, those of a pentelateral figure equal to six right angles, and so forth; increasing the amount by two right angles, for each additional side.—The same conclusion is derived from the successive application of triangles, by which the figure, at each accession, has the number of its sides increased by one, and the amount of its interior angles augmented by two right angles.

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

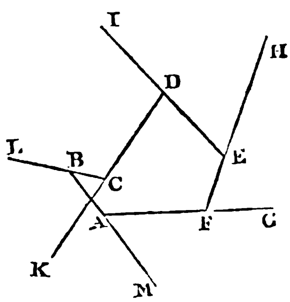
The exterior angles of a rectilineal figure are together equal to four right angles.

The exterior angles DEF, CDG, BCH, ABI, and EAK of the rectilineal figure ABCDE are taken together equal to four right angles.

For each exterior angle DEF, with its adjacent interior one AED, is equal to two right angles. All the exterior angles, therefore, added to the interior angles, are equal to twice as many right angles as the figure has sides. Consequently the exterior angles are equal to the four right angles which, by the Proposition immediately preceding, were abated, to form the aggregate of the interior angles.



Cor. If the figure has a re-entrant angle BCD, the angle BCK which occurs in place of an exterior angle, must be subducted in forming the amount; for the corresponding interior angle BCD, in this case, exceeds two right angles, by the angle BCK. Hence the angles EFG, DEH, CDI, ABL, FAM, diminished by BCK, are equal to four right angles.



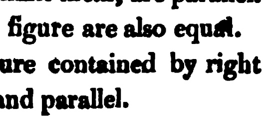
Schol. The amount of the exterior angles might be deduced from the successive deflections which a side would make before it has returned to its first position. Thus, in the first case, AF makes a complete circuit, changing into the positions EG, DH, CI, BK, and finally into AF again. But, in the second case, AG, after making similar deflections, turns backwards at C from the position DK to CL.

PROP. XXXIII. THEOR.

If the opposite angles of a quadrilateral figure be equal, its opposite sides will be likewise equal and parallel.

In the quadrilateral figure ABCD, let the angle at B be equal to the opposite one at D, and the angle at A equal to that at C; the sides AB and BC are equal and parallel to DC and DA.

For all the angles of the figure being equal to four right angles (I. 31. cor.), and the opposite angles being mutually equal, each pair of adjacent angles must be equal to two right angles. Wherefore ABC and BCD being equal to two right angles, the lines AB and DC (I. 22. cor.) parallel; for the same reason, ABC and BAD being together equal to two right angles, the sides BC and AD, which limit them, are parallel. But (I. 26.) the parallel sides of the figure are also equal.



Cor. Hence a quadrilateral figure contained by right angles has its opposite sides equal and parallel.

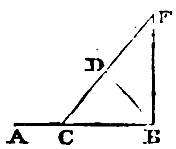
PROP. XXXIV. PROB.

To draw a perpendicular from the extremity of a given straight line.

From the point B, to draw a perpendicular to AB, without producing that line.

In AB take any point C, and on BC (I. 1. cor.) describe an isosceles triangle BDC, produce CD till DF be equal to it; and BF being joined, is the perpendicular required.

For, since by construction DF is equal to CD or BD, the triangle BDF is isosceles, and (I. 10.) the angle DBF equal to DFB; whence the angle CDB, being equal (I. 30.) to the interior angles DBF and DFB, is double of DBF, or the angle DBF is half of CDB. But the triangle BDC being isosceles, the angle CBD is equal to BCD; consequently the angles DBF and DBC are the halves of the vertical and base angles of BDC, and therefore (I. 30.) the whole angle CBF is the half of two right angles, or it is equal to one right angle.



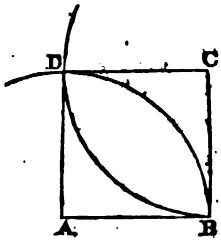
Schol. This problem, of which the construction may be slightly modified, is often more convenient in practice than the one given in the corollary to Prop. 5. of this Book.

PROP. XXXV. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to construct a square.

Let AB be the side of the square which it is required to construct.

From the extremity B draw, by the last proposition, BC perpendicular to BA and equal to it, and, from the points A and C with the distance AB or CB describe two circles intersecting each other in the point D, join AD and CD; the quadrilateral figure ABCD is the square required.



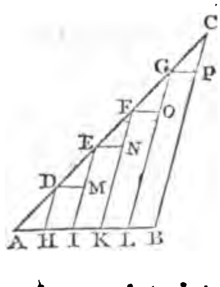
For, by this construction, the figure has all its sides equal, and one of its angles ABC a right angle, which comprehends the whole definition of a square.

PROP. XXXVI. PROB.

To divide a given straight line into any number of equal parts.

Let it be required to divide the straight line AB into a given number of equal parts, suppose five.

From the point A and at any oblique angle with AB, draw a straight line AC, in which take the portion AD, and repeat it five times from A to C, join CB, and from the several points of section D, E, F, and G, draw the parallels DH, EI, FK, and GL, (I. 23.) cutting AB in H, I, K, and L: AB is divided at these points into five equal parts.



For (I. 23.) draw DM, EN, FO, and GP parallel to AB. And because DH is parallel to EM, the exterior

5. A rhomboid or rectangle is said to be *contained* by any two adjacent sides.

A rhomboid is often indicated merely by the two letters placed at opposite corners.

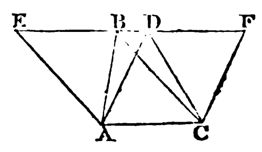
PROP. I. THEOR.

Triangles which have the same altitude, and stand on the same base, are equivalent.

The triangles ABC and ADC which stand on the same base AC and have the same altitude, contain equal spaces.

For join the vertices B, D by a straight line, which produce both ways; and from A draw AE (I. 23.) parallel to CB, and from C draw CF parallel to AD.

Because the triangles ABC, ADC have the same altitude, the straight line EF is parallel to AC (I. 24.), and consequently the figures CE and AF are parallelograms. Wherefore EB, being equal to AC (I. 26.) which is equal to DF, is itself equal to DF. Add BD to each,



and ED is equal to BF; but EA is equal to BC (I. 26.), and the interior angle AED is equal to the exterior angle CBF (I. 22.). Thus the two triangles EDA, BFC have the sides ED, EA equal to BF, BC, and the contained angle AED equal to CBF, and are therefore equal (I. 3.). Take these equal triangles CBF and EDA from the whole quadrilateral space AEFC, and there remains the rhomboid AEBC equivalent to ADFC. Whence the triangles ABC and ADC, which are the halves of these rhomboids (I. 26. cor.), are likewise equivalent.

Cor. Hence rhomboids on the same base and between the same parallels, are equivalent.

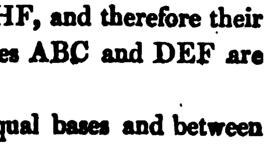
PROP. II. THEOR.

Triangles which have the same altitude, and stand on equal bases, are equivalent.

The triangles ABC, DEF, standing on equal bases AC and DF and having the same altitude, contain equal spaces.

For let the bases AC, DF be placed in the same straight line, join BE, and produce it both ways, draw AG and DH parallel to CB and FE (I. 23.) and join AH, CE.

Because the triangles ABC, DEF are of equal altitude, GE is parallel to AF (I. 24.), and GC, HF are parallelograms. But AC, being equal to DF, and DF equal (I. 26.) to HE, must also be equal to HE, and therefore (I. 27.) AE is a rhomboid or parallelogram.



Whence the rhomboid GC is equivalent to AE (II. 1. cor.), and this again is, for the same reason, equivalent to HF; consequently GC is equivalent to HF, and therefore their halves or (I. 26. cor.) the triangles ABC and DEF are equivalent.

Cor. 1. Hence rhomboids on equal bases and between the same parallels, are equivalent.

Cor. 2. Hence triangles which have the same vertex, and equal bases in the extension of the same straight line, are equivalent; and hence straight lines drawn from the vertex of a triangle to equal sections of the base, will likewise divide it into equivalent triangles.

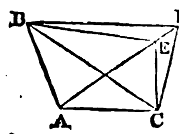
PROP. III. THEOR.

Equivalent triangles on the same or equal bases, have the same altitude.

If the triangles ABC and ADC, standing on the same base AC, contain equal spaces, they have the same altitude, or the straight line BD which joins their vertices is parallel to AC.

For if BD be not parallel to AC, draw from B a parallel BE meeting AD or that side produced, in E, and join CE.

Because BE is made parallel to AC, the triangle ABC is (II. 1.) equivalent to AEC; but ABC is by hypothesis equivalent to ADC, and therefore AEC is equivalent to ADC, which is absurd. The supposition then that BD is not parallel to AC involves a contradiction.



The same mode of demonstration, it is obvious, will apply in the case where the equivalent triangles stand on equal bases.

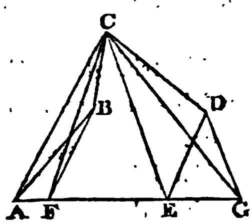
Cor. Hence equivalent rhomboids on the same or equal bases, have the same altitude.

PROP. IV. PROB.

To find a triangle equivalent to any rectilineal figure.

Let it be required to reduce the five-sided figure ABCDE to a triangle, or to find a triangle that shall contain an equal space.

Join any two alternate points A, C, and through the intermediate point B, draw BF parallel to AC, meeting either of the adjoining sides AE or CD in F; which point, when the angle ABC is re-entrant, will lie within the figure: Join CF. Again, join the alternate points C, E, and through the intermediate point D draw the parallel DG, to meet in G either of the adjoining sides AE or BC, which, since the angle CDE is salient, must for that effect be produced; and join CG. The triangle FCG is equivalent to the five-sided figure ABCDE.



Because the triangles CFA and CBA have by construction the same altitude and stand on the same base AC, they are (II. 1.) equivalent; take each of them away from the space ACDE, and there remains the quadrilateral figure FCDE equivalent to the five-sided figure ABCDE. Again, because the triangles CDE and CGE are equal, having the same altitude and the same base; add the triangle FCE to each, and the triangle FCG is equivalent to the quadrilateral figure FCDE, and is consequently equivalent to the original figure ABCDE.

In this manner any polygon may, by successive steps, be reduced to a triangle; for an exterior triangle such as CDE, or an interior such as ABC, is always exchanged for another equivalent one, which, attaching itself to either of the adjoining sides, coalesces with the rest of the figure.

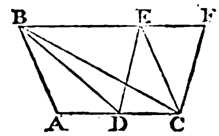
Schol. This problem is of singular use in practice, since it enables the surveyor greatly to abridge his computations, by reducing at once any plan that he has delineated to an equivalent triangle.

PROP. V. PROB.

A triangle is equivalent to a rhomboid which has the same altitude, and stands on half the base.

The triangle ABC is equivalent to the rhomboid DEFC, which stands on half the base DC, but has the same altitude.

For join BD and EC. The triangles ABD and DBC having the same vertex and equal bases, are (II. 2. cor. 2.) equivalent. But the diagonal EC bisects the rhomboid DEFC (I. 26. cor.), and the triangles DBC and DEC, having the same altitude, are equivalent (II. 1.); consequently their doubles, or the triangle ABC and the rhomboid DEFC, are equivalent.



Cor. Hence the area of a triangle is equal to half the rectangle contained under its base and its altitude—from which property is derived the mensuration of any rectilineal figure.

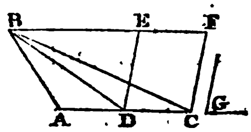
PROP. VI. PROB.

To construct a rhomboid equivalent to a given rectilineal figure, and having an angle equal to a given angle.

Let it be required to construct a rhomboid which shall be equivalent to a given rectilineal figure, and contain an angle equal to G.

Reduce the rectilineal figure to an equivalent triangle

ABC (II. 4.), bisect the base AC in the point D (I. 7.), and draw DE (I. 4.) making an angle CDE equal to the given angle G, through B draw BF parallel to AC (I. 23.) and through C the straight line CF parallel to DE: DEFC is the rhomboid which was required.



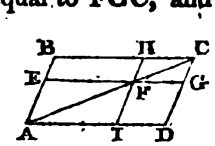
For the figure DF is evidently by construction a rhomboid, containing an angle CDE equal to G, and being equivalent (II. 5.) to the triangle ABC, is therefore equivalent to the given rectilineal figure.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

The complements of the rhomboids about the diagonal of a rhomboid, are mutually equivalent.

Let EI and HG be rhomboids about the diagonal of the rhomboid BD; their complements BF and FD contain equal spaces.

For, since the diagonal AF bisects the rhomboid EI (I. 26. cor.), the triangle AEF is equal to AIF; and for the same reason the triangle FHC is equal to FGC, and likewise the whole triangle ABC is equal to ADC. From this triangle ABC on the one side of the diagonal, take away the two triangles AEF and FHC; and from the equal triangle ADC on the other side take away the two triangles AIF and FGC, and there remains the rhomboid BF equivalent to FD.



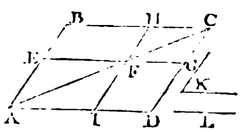
Cor. The same property will obviously extend to the spaces left on both sides of the diagonal by rhomboids any how combined.

PROP. VIII. PROB.

With a given straight line to construct a rhomboid equivalent to a given rectilineal figure, and having an angle equal to a given angle.

Let it be required to construct a rhomboid, containing a given space, and having a side equal to the line L, and an angle equal to K.

Construct (II. 6.) the rhomboid BF equivalent to the given rectilineal figure, and having an angle BEF equal to K; produce EF until FG be equal to L, through G draw DGC parallel to EB and meeting the extension of BH in C, join CF and produce it to meet the extension of BE in A; draw AD parallel to EF, meeting CG in D, and produce HF to I: FD is the rhomboid required.



For FD and FB are evidently complementary rhomboids about the diagonal AC, and therefore (II. 7.) equivalent; and because AE and IF are parallel, the angle FID is equal to EAI (I. 22.), which again is equal to BEF or the given angle K.

Schol. This problem might also be solved by repeated operations; each triangle, into which the rectilineal figure is divided, being successively converted into a rhomboid, having an angle equal to K, and placed on a line equal to L, or on the summit of each preceding rhomboid. These rhomboids would evidently coalesce and fulfil the conditions required. The process is not so direct as when the figure was previously reduced to an equivalent triangle; but it seems better adapted for the solution of another similar

problem—To constitute, under the same conditions, a rhomboid equivalent to the difference between two given figures. The smaller rhomboid is now placed below the summit of the other, leaving the defect standing on the original base.

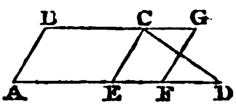
PROP. IX. THEOR.

A trapezoid is equivalent to the rectangle contained by its altitude, and half the sum of its parallel sides.

The trapezoid ABCD is equivalent to the rectangle contained by its altitude and half the sum of the parallel sides BC and AD.

For draw CE parallel to AB (I. 23.), bisect ED (I. 7.) in F, and draw FG parallel to AB, meeting the production of BC in G.

Because BC is equal to AE (I. 26.), BC and AD are together equal to AE and AD, or to twice AE with ED, or to twice AE and twice EF, that is, to twice AF; consequently AF is half the sum of BC and AD. Wherefore the rectangle contained by the altitude of the trapezoid and half the sum of its parallel sides, is equivalent to the rhomboid BF (II. 1. cor.); but the rhomboid EG is equivalent to the triangle ECD (II. 5.), add to each the rhomboid BE, and the rhomboid BF is equivalent to the trapezoid ABCD.



Schol. Hence may be found the area of any rectilineal figure, referred to a given base; for it is equal to that of the aggregate rectangles under the mean of each pair of perpendiculars and the interjacent portion of the base.

This proposition is of great use in surveying, since it

abridges the mensuration of the irregular borders of a field, by help of what are called *offsets*, or perpendiculars branching from the great line to each remarkable flexure of the extreme boundary.

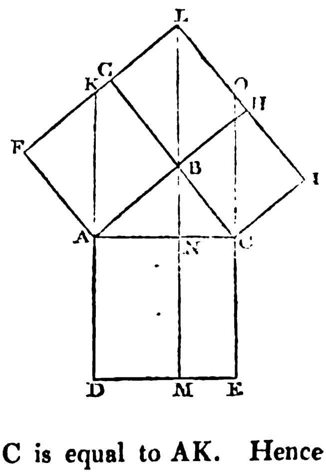
PROP. X. THEOR.

The square constructed on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, is equivalent to the squares on the two sides.

Let the triangle ABC be right-angled at B; the square constructed on the hypotenuse AC is equivalent to BF and BI the squares constructed on the base and perpendicular AB and BC.

For produce DA to K, and through B draw MBL parallel to DA (I. 23.) and meeting FG produced in L.

Because the angle CAK, adjacent to CAD, is a right angle, it is equal to BAF: from each of these take away the angle BAK, and there remains the angle BAC equal to FAK. But the angle ABC is equal to AFK, both of them being right angles. Wherefore the triangles ABC and AFK, having thus two angles of the one respectively equal to those of the other, and the interjacent side AF equal by hypothesis to AB, are mutually equal (I. 20.), and consequently the side AC is equal to AK. Hence the rectangular rhomboid AM is equivalent to the oblique



ABLK (II. 2. cor.), since they stand on equal bases AD and AK, and between the same parallels DK and ML. But ABLK is (II. 1. cor.) equivalent to the square rhomboid BF, for it stands on the same base AB and between the same parallels FL and AH. Wherefore the rectangle AM is equivalent to the square of AB.

And in like manner, by drawing MB to meet the production of HI, it may be proved, that the rectangle CM is equivalent to the square of BC. Consequently the whole square, ADEC, of the hypotenuse, being composed of the rectangles AM and CM, contains the same space as both the squares described on the two sides AB and BC.

Cor. Hence the square of a side AB of a right angled triangle is equivalent to the rectangle under the hypotenuse AC and the adjacent segment AN made by a perpendicular from the vertex B.

Schol. This proposition is deservedly the most celebrated of the whole Elements, and serves as the main link for connecting Geometry with the modern Algebra. The demonstration may be variously modified; but one of the simplest forms is that in which OK being joined, the figure CAKO is proved to be square, and the rectangle NK equivalent to the rhomboid AL and to the square BF on the one side, while the remaining rectangle NO is equivalent to the rhomboid CL and to the square BI on the other.

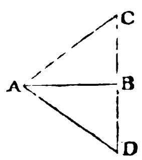
PROP. XI. THEOR.

If the square of one side of a triangle be equivalent to the squares of both the other sides, that side subtends a right angle.

Let the square described on AC be equivalent to the two squares of AB and BC; the triangle ABC is right-angled at B.

For draw BD perpendicular to AB (I. 34.) and equal to BC, and join AD.

Because BC is equal to BD, the square of BC is equal to the square of BD, and consequently the squares of AB and BC are equal to the squares of AB and BD. But the squares of AB and BC are, by hypothesis, equivalent to the square of AC; and since ABD is, by construction, a right angle, the squares of AB and BD are, by the preceding proposition, equivalent to the square of AD. Whence the square of AC is equal to that of AD, and the straight line AC equal to AD.



The two triangles ACB and ADB having all the sides in the one respectively equal to those in the other, are therefore equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle ABC is equal to the corresponding angle ABD, that is, to a right angle.

Cor. Hence the numbers 3, 4, and 5, will express the sides and hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle—a property which readily suggests another method of erecting a perpendicular at the extremity of a straight line; for AB being made equal to any four parts, the point C will be determined by the intersection of circles described from A and B with radii equal to five and three of such parts.

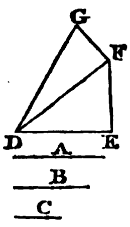
PROP. XII. PROB.

To find the side of a square equivalent to any number of given squares.

Let A, B, and C be the sides of the squares, to which it is required to find an equivalent square.

Draw DE equal to A, and from its extremity E erect (I. 34.) the perpendicular EF equal to B, join DF, and again, perpendicular to this, draw FG equal to C, and join DG: DG is the side of the square which was required.

For since DEF is a right-angled triangle, the square of DF is equivalent to the squares of DE and EF (II. 10.) or of the lines A and B. Add on both sides the square of FG or of C, and the squares of DF and FG, which are equivalent to the square of DG (II. 10.), are equivalent to the aggregate squares of A, B, and C. And, by thus repeating the process, it may be extended to any number of squares.



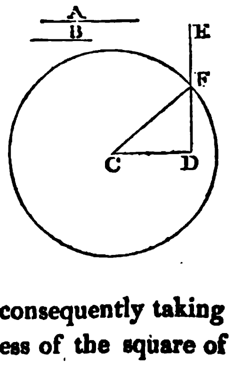
Cor. If four lines A, B, C, and D be all equal, it may be easily shown that the resulting line, or side of the quadruple square, is double of each.

PROP. XIII. PROB.

To find the side of a square equivalent to the difference between two given squares.

Let A and B be the sides of two squares; it is required to find a square equivalent to their difference.

Draw CD equal to the smaller line B, from its extremity erect (I. 34.) the indefinite perpendicular DE, and about the centre C, with a distance equal to the greater line A, describe a circle cutting DE in F: DF is the side of the square required.



For join CF. The triangle CDF being right-angled, the square of its hypotenuse CF is equivalent to the squares of CD and DF (II. 10.), and consequently taking the square of CD from both, the excess of the square of CF above that of CD is equivalent to the square of DF, or the square of DF is equivalent to the excess of the square of the line A above that of B.

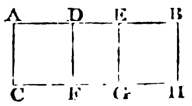
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

The rectangle contained by two straight lines, is equivalent to the rectangles contained under one of them and the several segments into which the other is divided.

The rectangle under AC and AB, is equivalent to the rectangles contained by AC, and the segments AD, DE, and EB.

For, through the points D and E, draw DF and EG parallel and equal to AC (I. 23.).

The figures AF, DG, and EH are evidently rhomboidal; they are also rectangular, for the angles ADF, AEG, and ABH are each equal to the opposite angle ACF (I. 26.). And the opposite sides DF, EG, and BH, being equal to AC,—the spaces into which the rectangle BC is resolved, are equal to the rectangles contained respectively by AC and AD, DE and EB.



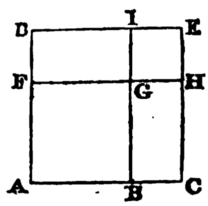
PROP. XV. THEOR.

The square constructed on the sum of two straight lines, is equivalent to the squares of those lines, together with twice their rectangle.

If AB and BC be two straight lines placed continuous; the square erected on their sum AC, is equivalent to the two squares of AB, BC, and twice the rectangle contained by them.

For through B draw BI (I. 23.) parallel to AD, make AF equal to AB, and through F draw FH parallel to DE.

It is manifest that the spaces AG, GE, DG and CG, into which the square of AC is divided, are all rhomboidal and rectangular. And because AB is equal to AF, and the opposite sides equal, the figure AG is equilateral, and having a right angle at A, is hence a square. Again, AD being equal to AC, take away the equals AF and AB, and there remains DF equal to BC, and consequently IG equal to GH (I. 26.): wherefore IH is likewise a square. The rectangle DG is contained by the sides FG and DF, which are equal to AB and BC; and the rectangle CG is contained by the sides GB and GH, which are likewise equal to AB and BC. Consequently the whole square of AC is composed of the two squares of AB and BC, together with twice the rectangle contained by these lines.



Cor. If the two lines be equal, the square of their sum will include four squares of each; the same property that was exhibited in the corollary to Prop. 12.

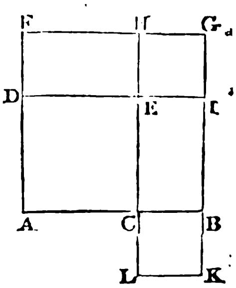
PROP. XVI. THEOR.

The square constructed on the difference of two straight lines, is equivalent to the squares of those lines, diminished by twice their rectangle.

Let AC be the difference of two straight lines AB and BC; the square of AC is equivalent to the excess of the two squares of AB and BC above twice their rectangle.

For let the squares of AB, BC, and AC be completed, and produce CE and DE the sides of the latter to H and I.

It is evident, that GE is equal to BL or the square of BC; to each add the intermediate rectangle EB, and GC is equal to IL; but the rectangle under AB and BC is equal to the rectangle IL, which is also equal to DG. From the compound surface CAFGBKL, or the squares of AB and BC, take away the space DFGBKLC, or the rectangles IL and DG, that is, twice the rectangle under AB and BC,—and there remains ADEC, or the square of the difference AC of the two lines AB and BC.



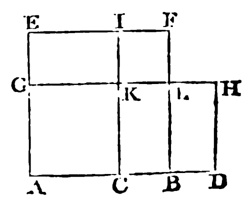
PROP. XVII. THEOR.

The rectangle contained by the sum and difference of two straight lines, is equivalent to the difference of their squares.

Let AB and BD be two continuous straight lines, of which AD is the sum and AC the difference; the rectangle under AD and AC is equivalent to the excess of the square of AB above that of BC.

For, having made AG equal to AC, draw GH parallel to AD (I. 23.), and CI, DH, parallel to AE.

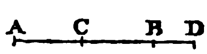
Because GK is equal to KC or HD, and EG is equal to CB or BD, the rectangle EK is equal to LD (II. 2. cor.); and consequently, adding the rectangle BG to each, the space AEIKLB is equivalent to the rectangle AH. But this space AEIKLB is the excess of the square of AB above IL



or the square of BC; and the rectangle AH is contained by AD and DH or AC. Wherefore the rectangle under AD and AC is equivalent to the difference of the squares of AB and BC.

Cor. 1. Hence if a straight line AB be bisected in C and cut unequally in D, the rectangle under the unequal segments AD, DB, together with the square of CD, the interval between the points of section, is equivalent to the square of AC, the half line. For AD is the sum of AC, CD, and DB is evidently their difference; whence, by the Proposition, the rectangle AD, DB is equivalent to the excess of the square of AC above that of CD, and consequently the rectangle AD, DB, with the square of CD, is equivalent to the square of AC.

Cor. 2. If a straight line AB be bisected in C and produced to D, the rectangle contained by AD the extended line, and its produced part DB, together with the square of the half line AC, is equivalent to the square of CD, which is made up of this half line and of the part produced. For AD is the sum of AC, CD, and DB is their difference; whence the rectangle AD, DB is equivalent to the excess of the square of CD above AC; or the rectangle AD, DB, with the square of AC, is equivalent to the square of CD.



Scholium. If, enlarging our views, we consider the distances DA, DB of the point D from the extremities of AB as segments of this line, whether formed by *internal* or *external* section; both corollaries may be comprehended under the same enunciation, That, if a straight line be divided equally and unequally, the rectangle contained by the unequal segments is equivalent to the difference of the squares of the half line and of the interval between the points of section.

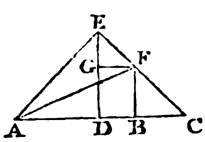
PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

The sum of the squares of two straight lines is equivalent to twice the squares of half their sum and of half their difference.

Let AB, BC be two continuous straight lines, D the middle point of AC, and consequently AD half the sum of these lines and DB half their difference; the squares of AB and BC are together equivalent to twice the square of AD, with twice the square of DB.

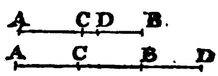
For erect (I. 5. cor.) the perpendicular DE equal to AD or DC, join AE and EC, through B and F draw (I. 23.) BF and FG parallel to DE and AC, and join AF.

Because AD is equal to DE, the angle DAE (I. 10.) is equal to DEA, and since (I. 30. cor.) they make up together one right angle, each of them must be half a right angle. In the same manner, the angles DEC and DCE of the triangle EDC are proved to be each half a right angle; consequently the angle AEC, composed of AED and CED, is equal to a whole right angle. And in the triangle FBC, the angle CBF being equal to CDE (I. 22.) which is a right angle, and the angle BCF being half a right angle—the remaining angle BFC is also half a right angle (I. 30.), and therefore equal to the angle BCF; whence (I. 11.) the side BF is equal to BC. By the same reasoning, it may be shown, that the right angled triangle GEF is likewise isosceles. Wherefore, the square of the hy-



potenuse EF, which is equivalent to the squares of EG and GF (II. 10.), is equivalent to twice the square of GF or of DB; and the square of AE, in the right-angled triangle ADE, is equivalent to the squares of AD and DE, or twice the square of AD. But since ABF is a right angle, the square of AF is equivalent to the squares of AB and BF or BC; and because AEF is likewise a right angle, the square of the same line AF is equivalent to the squares of AE and EF, that is, to twice the squares of AD and of DB. Consequently the squares of AB, BC are together equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.

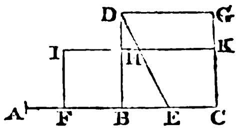
Cor. Hence if a straight line AB be bisected in C and cut unequally in D, whether by *internal or external* section, the squares of the unequal segments AD and DB are together equivalent to twice the square of the half line AC, and twice the square of CD the interval between the points of division.



PROP. XIX. PROB.

To cut a given straight line, such that the square of one part shall be equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole line and the remaining part.

Let AB be the straight line which it is required to divide into two segments, BF and AF, such that the square of the one shall be equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole line and the other.



Produce AB till BC be equal to it, erect (I. 5. cor.) the perpendicular BD equal to AB or BC, bisect BC in E (I. 7.), join ED and make EF equal to it; the square of the segment BF is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole line BA and its remaining segment AF.

For complete the square BG (I. 35.), make BH equal to BF, and draw IHK and FI parallel to AC and BD (I. 23.) Since AB is equal to BD, and BF to BH; the remainder AF is equal to HD: and it is farther evident, that FH is a square, and that IC and DK are rectangles. But BC being bisected in E and produced to F, the rectangle under CF, FB, or the rectangle IC, together with the square of BE, is equivalent to the square of EF or of DE (II. 17. cor. 2.). But the square of the hypotenuse DE is equivalent to the squares of DB and BE (II. 10.); whence the rectangle IC, with the square of BE, is equivalent to the squares of DB and BE; or, omitting the common square of BE, the rectangle IC is equivalent to the square of DB. Take away from both the rectangle BK, and there remains the square BI, or the square of BF, equivalent to the rectangle HG, or the rectangle contained by BA and AF.

Cor. 1. Since the rectangle under CF and FB is equivalent to the square of BC, it is evident that the line CF is likewise divided at B in a manner similar to the original line AB. But the line CF is made up, by joining the whole line AB, now become only the larger portion, to its greater segment BF, which next forms the smaller portion in the new compound. Hence this peculiar division of any line being once obtained, a series of other lines, all possessing the same property, may readily be found, by

repeated additions. Thus, let AB be so cut, that the square of BC is equivalent to the rectangle BA, AC: Make successively, BD equal to BA, DE equal to DC, EF

equal to EB, and FG equal to FD; the lines CD, BE, DF, and EG, beginning in succession at the points C, B, D, and E are divided at the points B, D, E, and F, such that, in each of them, the square of the larger part is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole and the smaller part.—Even if the section of AB were assumed at first inexact, the series of combinations would always approach to greater accuracy.

The procedure might likewise be reversed. If FD, EB, and DC be made successively equal to FG, EF and DE, the lines DF, BE, and CD will be divided in the same manner at the points E, D and B.

Cor. 2. Hence also the construction of another problem of the same nature; in which it is required to produce a straight line AB, such that the rectangle contained by the whole line thus produced and the part produced, shall be equivalent to the square of the line AB itself. For, by this proposition, divide AB in C, so that the rectangle BA, AC shall be equivalent to the square of BC, and produce AB until BD be equal to BC. Then, from what has been demonstrated, it follows that the rectangle under AD and DB must be equivalent to the square of the whole line AB.

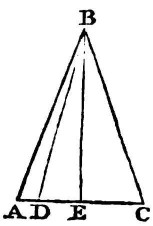
It will be convenient, for the sake of conciseness, to designate in future this remarkable division of a line, where the rectangle under the whole and one part is equivalent to the square of the other, by the term Medial Section.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

The square of the side of an isosceles triangle is greater or less than the square of a straight line drawn from the vertex to the base or its extension, by the rectangle contained under its internal or external segments.

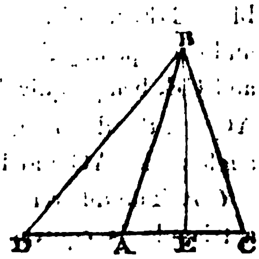
1. If BD be drawn from the vertex of the isosceles triangle ABC to a point D in the base; the square of AB exceeds the square of BD, by the rectangle under the segments AD, DC.

For (I. 7.) bisect the base AC in E, and join BE. Because the triangles ABE and CBE have the sides AB, AE equal to BC, CE, and the side BE common, they are equal (I. 2.), and consequently the corresponding angles BEA, BEC are equal, and each of them (Def. 4.) a right angle. Wherefore, in the triangle AEB, the square of the hypotenuse AB is equivalent to the squares of AE and BE (II. 10.); and since AC is cut equally in E and unequally in D, the square of AE is equivalent to the square of DE, together with the rectangles AD, DC (II. 17. cor. 1.); consequently the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of BE and DE, together with the rectangle AD, DC. But the square of BD is equivalent to the squares of BE and DE (II. 10.); whence the square of AB is equivalent to the square of BD, together with the rectangle AD, DC.



2. But the square of the straight line BD drawn from the vertex to any point in the base produced, is greater

than the square of AB by the rectangle contained under AD and DC, the external segments of the base.



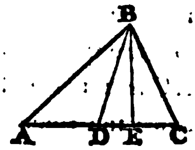
For draw BE, as before, to bisect the base AC. The square of DE is equivalent to the square of AE, together with the rectangle AD, DC, (II. 17. cor. 2.); to each of these add the square of BE, and the squares of DE and BE, that is, the square of BD (II. 10.), are equivalent to the squares of AE and BE, or the square of BA, together with the rectangle AD, DC.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

The difference between the squares of the sides of a triangle, is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by the base and the distance of its middle point from the perpendicular.

Let the side AB of the triangle ABC be greater than BC; and, having let fall the perpendicular BE, and bisected AC in D, the excess of the square of AB above that of BC is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by the base AC and segment DE.

For the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of AE and BE (II. 10.), and the square of BC is equivalent to the squares CE and BE; wherefore, since the square of BE occurs in both, the excess of the square of AB above that of BC is equivalent to the excess of the square of AE above that of CE. But the excess of the square of AE above that of CE is (II. 17.) equivalent to the rectangle contained by their



sum AC and their difference, which is evidently the double of DE, the distance of the point E from the middle D; and consequently the difference between the squares of AE and CE, being equivalent to the rectangle contained by AC and the double of DE, is equivalent to twice the rectangle under AC and DE.

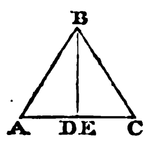
Cor. The difference between the squares of the sides of a triangle is equivalent to the difference between the squares of the segments of the base made by a perpendicular; a property likewise easily derived from the preceding proposition.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

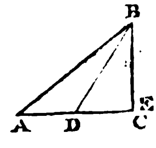
In any triangle, the sum of the squares of the sides is equivalent to twice the square of half the base and twice the square of the straight line which joins the point of its bisection with the vertex.

Let BD be drawn from the vertex B of the triangle ABC to bisect the base; the squares of the sides AB and BC are together equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.

For let fall the perpendicular BE (I. 6.); and if the point D coincide with E, the triangle ABC being evidently isosceles, the squares of AB and BC are the same with twice the square of AB, or twice the squares of AE and EB, or of AD and DB (II. 10.).

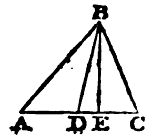


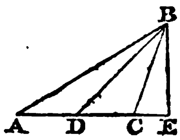
But if the perpendicular fall upon C, the triangle is right-angled, and the squares of AB and BC are then equivalent to the square of AC and twice the square of BC, or to twice the squares of the two halves AD and DC, with twice the square of BC;



but, in the right-angled triangle DEB, (II. 10.), twice the squares of DC and BC are equivalent to twice the square of DB, and consequently the squares of AB and BC are equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.

In every other case, whether the perpendicular BE fall within or without the base AC, the squares of AE, EC, the unequal segments of AC are (II. 19. cor.) equivalent to twice the square of AD and twice the square of DE; add twice the square of EB to both, and the squares of AE, EB and of CE, EB, or the squares of the two hypotenuses AB, BC are equivalent to twice the square of AD, and twice the squares of DE, EB, that is, (II. 10.) to twice the square of DB.





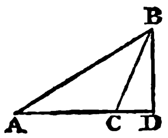
PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

The square of the side of a triangle is greater or less than the squares of the base and the other side, according as the opposite angle is obtuse or acute, by twice the rectangle contained by the base and the distance intercepted between the vertex of that angle and the perpendicular.

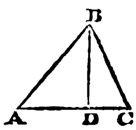
In the oblique-angled triangle ABC, where the perpendicular BD falls without the base; the square of the side AB which subtends the oblique angle exceeds the squares of the sides AC and BC which contain it, by twice the rectangle under AC and CD.

For the square of AD, or the square of the sum of AC

and CD is (II. 15.) equivalent to the squares of these lines AC, CD, together with twice their rectangle. Add to both the square of DB, and the squares of AD, DB, or (II. 10.) the square of AB is equivalent to the square of AC, and the squares of CD, DB, together with twice the rectangle AC, CD; but the squares of CD, DB are (II. 10.) equivalent to the square of CB; whence the square of AB exceeds the squares of AC, BC, by twice the rectangle under AC and CD.



Again, in the acute-angled triangle ABC, where the perpendicular BD falls within the triangle; the square of the side AB that subtends the acute angle is less than the squares of the containing sides AC, BC, by twice the rectangle under the base AC and its intercepted portion CD.



For the square of AD, or the square of the difference between AC and CD, is (II. 16.) equivalent to the squares of AC and CD, diminished by twice their rectangle. Add to each the square of DB, and the squares of AD and DB, or the square of AB, are equivalent to the square of AC, with the squares of CD and DB, or to the square of BC, diminished by twice the rectangle under AC and CD. Consequently the square of AB is less than the squares of AC and BC, by twice the rectangle under AC and CD.

Cor. If the triangle ABC be isosceles, having equal sides AC and BC, the square of the base AB is equivalent to twice the rectangle under the side AC, and the adjacent segment AD made by the perpendicular BD, whether the vertical angle be obtuse or acute. For the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of AC and BC, or to twice the square of AC increased or diminished by twice the rect-

angle under AC and CD; that is, equivalent to twice the rectangle under AC and AD, the sum or difference of AC and CD.—This might also be demonstrated from the corollary to Prop. 10.

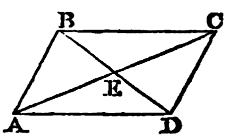
Schol. When the three sides of a triangle are given, the segments of the base made by a perpendicular may be found either by Prop. 21. or Prop. 23., and thence the perpendicular can easily be determined from the application of Prop. 10. But half the rectangle under this perpendicular and the base will, by corollary to Prop. 5., express the area of the triangle. These propositions are hence extremely useful in Practical Geometry.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

The squares of the sides of a rhomboid are together equivalent to the squares of its diagonals.

Let ABCD be a rhomboid: The squares of all the sides AB, BC, CD, and AD, are together equivalent to the squares of the diagonals AC and BD.

For the angles BCE and CBE are equal to the alternate angles DAE and ADE, and the interjacent sides BC and AD are equal: wherefore (I. 20.) the triangles BEC and DEA are equal. Consequently CE being equal to



EA, the squares of AB, BC are (II. 22.) equivalent to twice the square of AE and twice the square of BE; whence twice the squares of AB, BC, or the squares of all the sides of the rhomboid are equivalent to four times the square of AE and four times the square of BE, that is, to the squares of AC and BD.

ELEMENTS

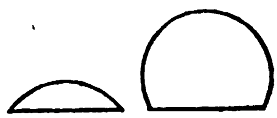
OF

GEOMETRY.

BOOK III.

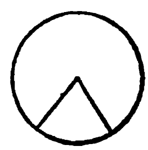
DEFINITIONS.

1. ANY portion of the circumference of a circle is called an *arc*, and the straight line which joins the two extremities, a *chord*.

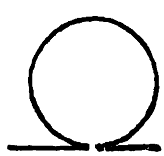


2. The space included between an arc and its chord, is named a *segment*.

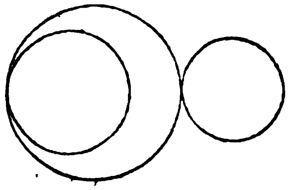
3. A *sector* is the portion of a circle contained by two radii and the arc lying between them.



4. The *tangent* to a circle is a straight line which *touches* the circumference, or though extended would meet it only in a single point.

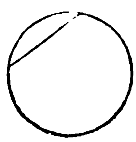


5. Circles are said to *touch* mutually, if they meet, but do not cut each other.



6. The point where a straight line touches a circle, or one circle touches another, is called the point of *contact*.

7. A straight line is said to be *inflected* from a point, when it terminates in another straight line, or at the circumference of a circle.

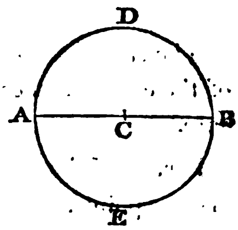


PROP. I. THEOR.

A circle is bisected by its diameter.

The circle ADBE is divided into two equal portions, by the diameter AB.

For let the portion ADB be reversed and applied to the other portion AEB, the straight line AB and its middle point, or the centre C, remaining the same. And since the radii of the circle are all equal, or the distance of C from any point in the boundary ADB is equal to its distance from any point of the opposite boundary AEB, every point D of the former must find on its application a corresponding point of the latter, and consequently the two portions ADB and AEB will entirely coincide.



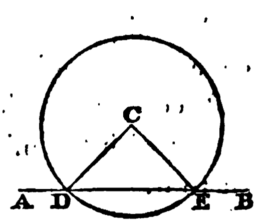
Cor. The portion ADB limited by a diameter, is thus a *semicircle*, and the arc ADB is a *semicircumference*.

PROP. II. THEOR.

A straight line cuts the circumference of a circle only in two points.

If the straight line AB cut the circumference of a circle in D, it can meet it again only in another point E.

For join D and the centre C; and because from the point C on-



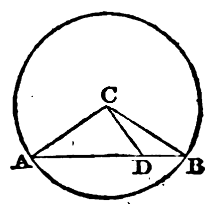
ly two equal straight lines, such as CD and CE, can be drawn to AB (I. 17. cor.) the circle described from C through the point D will cross AB again only at the point E.

PROP. III. THEOR.

The chord of an arc lies wholly within the circle.

The straight line AB which joins any two points A, B of the circumference of a circle, lies wholly within the figure.

For, from the centre C, draw CD to some point D in the chord AB, and join CA and CB.



Because CDA is the exterior angle of the triangle CDB, it is greater (I. 8.) than the interior CBD or CBA; but CBA, being (I. 10.) equal to CAB or CAD, the angle CDA is consequently greater than CAD, and therefore its opposite side CA is (I. 13.) greater than CD, or CD is less than CA, and thus the point D must lie within the circle.

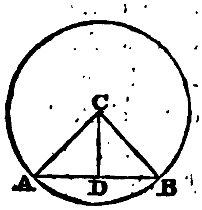
Cor. Hence a circle is concave towards its centre.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the centre of a circle at right angles to a chord, likewise bisects it; and, conversely, the straight line which joins the centre with the middle of a chord, is perpendicular to it.

The perpendicular let fall from the centre C upon the chord AB, cuts it into two equal parts AD, DB.

For join CA, CB: And, in the triangles ACD, BCD, the side AC is equal to CB, CD is common to both, and the right angle ADC is equal to BDC; these triangles having thus their corresponding angles at A and B both acute, are equal (I. 21.) and consequently the side AD is equal to BD.



Again, let AD be equal to BD; the bisecting line CD is at right angles to AB.

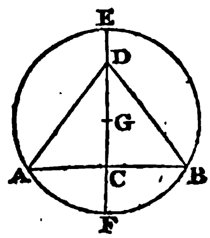
For join CA, CB. The triangles ACD and BCD, having the sides AC, AD equal to CB, BD, and the remaining side CD common to both, are equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle CDA is equal to CDB, and each of them a right angle.

Cor. Hence a straight line cutting two concentric circles has equal portions intercepted by their circumferences; for the perpendicular from the centre would bisect both the chords.

PROP. V. THEOR.

A straight line which bisects a chord at right angles, passes though the centre of the circle.

If the perpendicular FE bisect a chord AB, it will pass through G the centre of the circle.



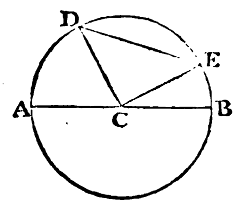
For in FE take any point D, and join DA and DB. The triangles ADC and BDC, having by hypothesis the side AC equal to BC, the

right angle ACD equal to BCD, and the side CD common, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the base AD is equal to BD. The point D is, therefore, the centre of some circle described through A and B; and thus the centres of all the circles that can pass though the points A and B are found in the straight line EF. The centre G of the circle AEBF must hence occur in that perpendicular.

Cor. The centre of a circle may be found, by bisecting the chord AB by the diameter EF (I. 7.), and bisecting this line again in G.

PROP. VI. THEOR.

The diameter is the greatest line that can be inflected in a circle.

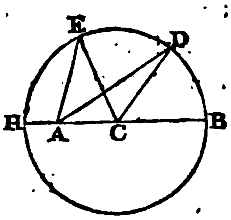


The diameter AB is greater than any other chord DE.

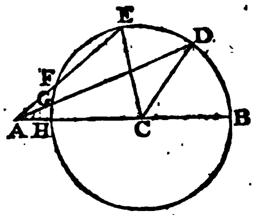
For join CD and CE. The two sides DC and EC of the triangle DCE are together greater than the third side DE (I. 14.): But DC and CE are equal to AC and CB, or to the whole diameter AB. Wherefore AB is greater than DE.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

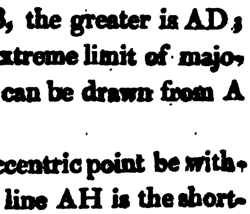
If from any eccentric point, two straight lines be drawn to the circumference of a circle; the one which passes nearer the centre is greater than that which lies more remote.



Let C be the centre of a circle, and A a different point, from which two straight lines AD and AE are drawn to the circumference; of these lines, AD, which lies nearer to B the opposite extremity of the diameter, is greater than AE, which lies more remote from it.



For, whether the point A occurs in circumference, or within or without the circle, the triangles ADC and AEC have the side CD equal to CE, the side CA common to both, but the contained angle DCA greater than ECA; wherefore (I. 18.) the base AD is likewise greater than the base AE.



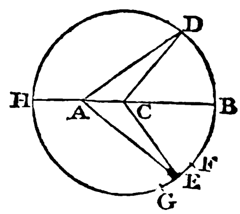
Cor. 1. Hence the straight line ACB, which passes though the centre, is the greatest of all those lines that can be drawn to the circumference of the circle from any eccentric point A. For it is evident from the Proposition, that the nearer the point D approaches to B, the greater is AD; consequently the point B forms the extreme limit of majority, or AB is the greatest line that can be drawn from A to the circumference.

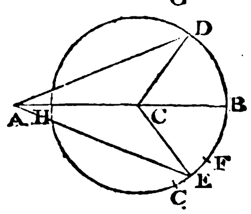
Cor. 2. Hence also, whether the eccentric point be within or without the circle, the straight line AH is the shortest that can be drawn from A to the circumference. For AE is less than AD, and AG less than AF; and the nearer the terminating point approaches to H, which is obviously the most remote from B, the shorter must be its dis-

tance from A. Wherefore the point H marks the limit of minority, and AH is the shortest line that can be drawn from A to the circumference of the circle.

PROP. VIII. THEOR.

From any eccentric point, not more than two equal straight lines can be drawn to the circumference, one on each side of the diameter.





Let A be a point which is not the centre of the circle, and AD a straight line drawn from it to the circumference.

Find the centre C (III. 5. cor.) join CA and CD, draw (I. 4.) CE making an angle ACE equal to ACD and cutting the circumference in E, and join AE: The straight lines AE, AD are equal.

For the triangles ADC, AEC having the side CD equal to CE, the side AC common, and the contained angle ACD equal to ACE, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the base AD is equal to AE.

But, except AE, no straight line can be drawn from A on the same side of the diameter HB, that shall be equal to AD: For if the line terminate in a point F between E and B, it will be greater than AE (III. 7.); and if the line terminate in G between E and H, it will, for the same reason, be less than AE.

Cor. 1. That point from which more than two equal

straight lines can be drawn to the circumference, is the centre of the circle.

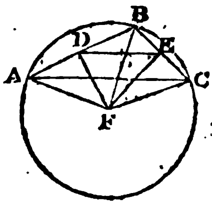
Cor. 2. Hence a circle will not cut another in more than two points.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

A circle may be described through three points which are not in the same straight line.

Let A, B, C, be three points not lying in the same direction; the circumference of a circle may be made to pass through them.

For (I. 7.) bisect AB by the perpendicular DF, and BC by the perpendicular EF. These straight lines DF, EF will meet; because, DE being joined, the angles EDF, DEF are less than BDF, BEF, and consequently less than two right angles, and DF, EF are not parallel (I. 22.), but concur to form a triangle whose vertex is F.



Again, every circle that passes through the two points A and B, has its centre in the perpendicular DF (III. 5.); and, for the same reason, every circle that passes through B and C has its centre in EF; consequently the circle which would pass through all the three points must have its centre in F, the point common to both the perpendiculars DF and EF.

It is farther manifest, that there is only one circle which can be made to pass through the three points A, B, C; for the intersection of the straight lines DF and EF, which marks the centre, is a single point.

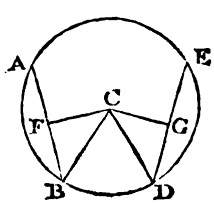
Cor. Hence the mode of describing a circle about a given triangle ABC, the centre being always found by the concurring perpendiculars DF and EF, which bisect the sides AB and CB.

PROP. X. THEOR.

Equal chords are equidistant from the centre of a circle; and chords which are equidistant from the centre, are likewise equal.

Let AB, DE be equal chords inflected within the same circle; their distances from the centre, or the perpendiculars CF, CG, let fall upon them, are equal.

For the perpendiculars CF and CG bisect the chords AB and DE (III. 4.), and consequently BF, DG, the halves of these are likewise equal. The right-angled triangles CBF and CDG, which are thus of the same character, having the two sides BC, BF equal respectively to DC, DG, and the corresponding angle BFC equal to DGC, are equal (I. 21.), and consequently the side FC is equal to GC.



Again, if the chords AB, DE be equally distant from the centre, they are themselves equal.

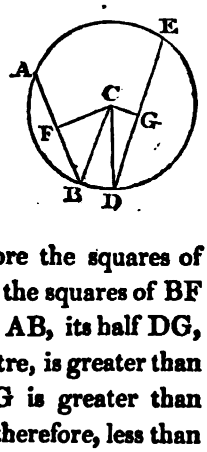
For the same construction remaining: The triangles CBF and CDG are still right-angled, or of the same character, and have now the two sides CB, CF equal to CD, CG, and the angle BFC equal to DGC; consequently they are equal, and the side BF equal to DG; the doubles of these, therefore, or the whole chords AB, DE are equal.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

The greater chord is nearer the centre of a circle; and that chord which lies nearer the centre is the greater.

Let the chord DE be greater than AB; its distance from the centre, or the perpendicular CG let fall upon it, is less than the distance CF.

For, in the right angled triangle BCF, the square of the hypotenuse BC is equivalent to the squares of BF and FC (II. 10.); and, for the same reason, the square of the hypotenuse DC of the right angled triangled DCG is equivalent to the squares of DG and GC. But the radii BC and DC are equal, and so consequently are their squares; wherefore the squares of DG and GC are together equivalent to the squares of BF and FC. And since DE is greater than AB, its half DG, made by the perpendicular from the centre, is greater than BF, and consequently the square of DG is greater than the square of BF; the square of GC is, therefore, less than the square of FC, because, when conjoined with the squares of DG and BF, they make the same amount, which is the square of the radius of the circle. Hence the perpendicular GC itself must be less than FC.



Again, if the chord DE be nearer the centre than AB, it is greater than AB.

For the same construction remaining: It has been proved that the squares of BF and FC are together equivalent to the squares of DG and GC; but GC being less than

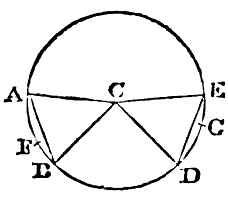
FC, the square of GC likewise must be less than the square of FC, and consequently the square of DG is greater than the square of BF; whence the side DG is greater than BF, and its double, or the chord DE, is greater than AB.

PROP. XII. THEOR.

In the same or equal circles, equal angles at the centre are subtended by equal chords, and terminated by equal arcs.

If the angle ACB at the centre C be equal to DCE, the chord AB is equal to DE, and the arc AFB equal to DGE.

For let the sector ACB be applied to DCE. The centre remaining in its place, the radius CA will lie on CD; and the angle ACB being equal to DCE, the radius CB will adapt itself to CE. And because all the radii are equal, their extreme points A and B must coincide with D and E; wherefore the straight lines which join those points, or the chords AB and DE, must coincide. But the arcs AFB and DGE that connect the same points, will also coincide; for any intermediate point F in the one, being at the same distance from the centre as every point of the other, must, on its application, find always a corresponding point G.



The same mode of reasoning is applicable to the case of equal circles.

Cor. 1. Hence, in the same or equal circles, equal arcs

have equal chords, and terminate equal angles at the centre.

Cor. 2. Hence also, in the same or equal circles, equal chords must subtend equal arcs of a like kind, that is, arcs which are both greater or both less than a semicircumference.

Schol. The length of a chord in a circle is thus insufficient alone to determine the magnitude of the angle which it subtends at the centre, for AB is the chord both of the small arc AFB and of its explement, the large compound arc AEB. To remove the ambiguity, it is always requisite to know, whether this angle be greater or less than two right angles.

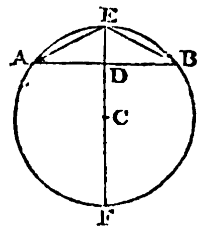
PROP. XIII. PROB.

To bisect a given arc of a circle.

Let it be required to divide the arc AEB into two equal portions.

Draw the chord AB, and bisect it (I. 7.) by the perpendicular EF cutting the circumference AB in E: The arc AE is equal to EB.

For the triangles ADE, BDE, have the side AD equal to BD, the side DE common, and the containing right angle ADE equal to BDE; they are (I. 3.) consequently equal, and have the base AE equal to BE. But these equal chords AE, BE must subtend equal arcs of a like kind (III. 12. cor. 2.), and the arcs AE, BE are evidently each of them less than a semicircumference.



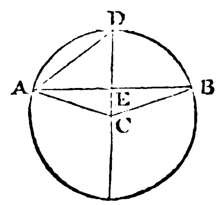
Cor. The correlative or explemental arc AFB is also bisected, by the perpendicular EDF at the opposite point F.

PROP. XIV. PROB.

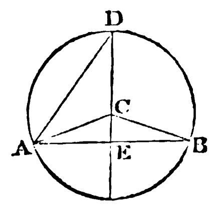
An arc being given, to complete its circle.

Let ADB be an arc; it is required to trace out the circle to which it belongs.

Draw the chord AB, and bisect it by the perpendicular CD (I. 7.), cutting the arc in D, join AD, and from A draw AC making an angle DAC equal to ADC (I. 4.): The intersection C of this straight line with the perpendicular, is the centre of the circle required.



For join CB. The triangles ACE and BCE, having the side EA equal to EB, the side EC common, and the contained angle AEC equal to BEC, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently AC is equal to BC. But (I. 11.) AC is also equal to CD, because the angle DAC was made equal to ADC. Wherefore (III. 8. cor. 1.) the three straight lines CA, CD, and CB being all equal, the point C is the centre of the circle.



PROP. XV. THEOR.

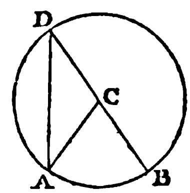
The angle at the centre of a circle is double of the angle which, standing on the same arc, has its vertex in the circumference.

Let AB be an arc of a circle; the angle which it termi-

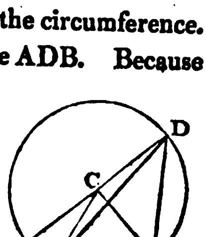
nates at the centre, is double of ADB the corresponding angle at the circumference.

For join DC and produce it to the opposite circumference. This diameter DCE, if it lie not on one of the sides of the angle ADB, must either fall within that angle or without it.

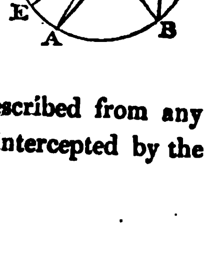
First, let DC coincide with DB. And because AC is equal to DC, the angle ADC is equal to DAC (1. 10.); but the exterior angle ACB is equal to both of these (I. 30.), and therefore equal to double of either, or the angle ACB at the centre is double of the angle ADB at the circumference.



Next, let the straight line DCE lie within the angle ADB. From what has been demonstrated, it is apparent, that the angle ACE is double of ADE, and the angle BCE double of BDE; wherefore the sum of the angles ACE, BCE, or the whole reverse angle ACB, is double of that of the angles ADE, BDE, or the compound angle ADB at the circumference.



Lastly, let DCE fall without the angle ADB. Because the angle BCE is double of BDE, and the angle ACE is double of ADE; the excess of BCE above ACE, or the angle ACB at the centre, is double of the excess of BDE above ADE, that is, of the angle ADB at the circumference.

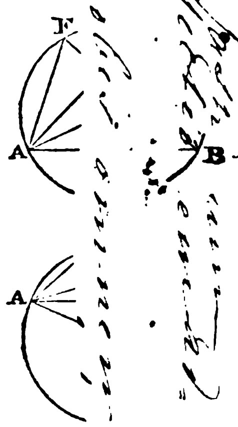


Cor. Hence if an equal circle be described from any point D in the circumference, its arc intercepted by the

lines DA and DB will be the half of AB, and the whole of the interior arc half of the exterior.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

The angles in the same segment of equal.



Let ADB be the segment of a circle; the angles AFB, AGB contained in it, or which stand on the same opposite portion AEB of the circumference, are equal to each other.

For join CA, CB. The angle ACB, or its reverse at the centre, and terminated by the arc AEB, is double of the angle AFB or AGB at the circumference (III. 15.); these angles AFB, AGB, which stand on the same arc AEB, are, therefore, in every case, the halves of the same central angle ACB, and are consequently equal to each other.

Cor. Hence equal angles at the circumference must stand on equal arcs; for their doubles or the central angles, being equal, are terminated by equal arcs (III. 12.). Hence also equal angles that stand on the same base have their vertices in the same segment of a circle.

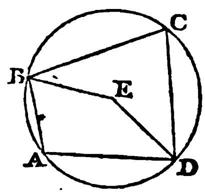
Schol. Hence the ordinary construction of theatres, the seats being disposed in large arcs of a circle, so that the stage may to each spectator subtend an equal angle, or present always the same visual magnitude.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

The opposite angles of a quadrilateral figure contained within a circle, are together equal to two right angles.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle; the angles A and C are together equal to two right angles, and so are those at B and D.

For join EB and ED. The angle BED at the centre is double of the angle BCD at the circumference (III. 15.); and for the same reason, the reverse angle BED is double of BAD. Consequently the angles BCD and BAD are the halves of angles about the point E, which make up four right angles; wherefore the angles BCD and BAD are together equal to two right angles.



In the same manner, by joining EA and EC, it may be proved that the angles ABC and ADC are together equal to two right angles.

Cor. 1. Hence it is evident from Prop. I. 16., that a circle may be described about a quadrilateral figure which has its opposite angles equal to two right angles.

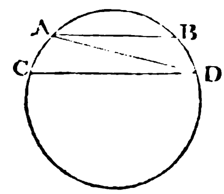
Cor. 2. Hence if one side of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle be produced, it will form an exterior equal to the opposite angle.

Cor. 3. Hence the angles at the base of a triangle inscribed in a circle, are together equal to an angle contained in the segment opposite to its vertex.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

Parallel chords intercept equal arcs of a circle.

Let the chord AB be parallel to CD; the intercepted arc AC is equal to BD.



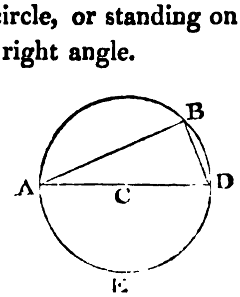
For join AD. And because the straight lines AB and CD are parallel, the alternate angles BAD and ADC are equal (I. 22.); wherefore these angles, having their vertices in the circumference of the circle, must stand on equal arcs (III. 16. cor.), and consequently the arcs AC and BD are equal to each other.

Cor. Hence, conversely, the straight lines which intercept equal arcs of a circle are parallel; and hence another mode of drawing a parallel through a given point to a given straight line.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

The angle in a semicircle is a right angle, the angle in a greater segment is acute, and the angle in a smaller segment is obtuse.

Let ABD be an angle in a semicircle, or standing on the semicircumference AED; it is a right angle.

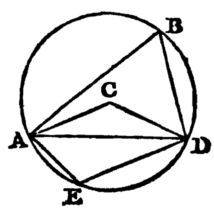


For ABD, being an angle at the circumference, is half of the angle at the centre terminated by the same arc AED (III. 15.); it is, therefore, half of the angle ACD formed by the diverging of the opposite portions CA, CD of the diameter, or

or half of two right angles, and is consequently equal to one right angle.

Again, let ABD be an angle in a segment greater than a semicircle, or standing on a less arc AED than the semicircumference; it is an acute angle.

For join CA, CD. The angle ABD is half of the central angle ACD, which is evidently less than two right angles; wherefore ABD is less than one right angle, or it is acute.



But the angle AED, in the smaller segment, is obtuse. For AED stands on the arc ABD, which is greater than] a semicircumference, and terminates an angle at the centre, the reverse of ACD, and greater, therefore, than two right angles; AED is hence an obtuse angle.

Cor. Hence conversely the arc which contains a right angle must be a semicircle.

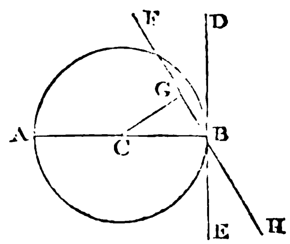
Schol. From the remarkable property, that the angle in a semicircle is a right angle, may be derived an elegant method of drawing perpendiculars.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

The perpendicular at the extremity of a diameter is a tangent to the circle, and the only tangent which can be applied at that point.

Let ACB be the diameter of a circle, to which the straight line EBD is drawn at right angles from the extre-

mity B; it will touch the circumference at that point.

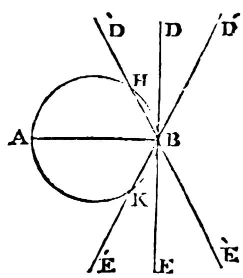


For CB, being perpendicular, is the shortest distance of the centre C from the straight line EBD (I. 17.); wherefore every other point in this line is farther from the centre than B, and consequently falls without the circle.

But EBD, drawn at right angles to the diameter, is the only straight line which can pass through the point B and not cut the circle. For were HBF such a line, the perpendicular CG let fall upon it from the centre, would be less than CB (I. 17.), and must therefore lie within the circle; consequently HBG, being extended, would again meet the circumference.

Cor. Hence a straight line drawn from the point of contact at right angles to a tangent, must be a diameter, or must pass through the centre of the circle.

Scholium. The nature of a tangent to the circle is, like that of parallel lines, easily discovered from the consideration of limits. For suppose the straight line DE, extending both ways, to turn about the extremity B of the diameter AB; it will cut the circle first on the one side of AB, and afterwards on the other. But the arc AH being less than a semicircumference, the angle HBA which the line D′E′ makes with the diameter is acute (III. 19.); and, for the same reason, the angle KBA is acute, and consequently its adjacent angle D′BA is obtuse. Thus the revolving line DE, when it meets the semicir-



cumference AHB, makes an acute angle with the diameter; but when it comes to meet the opposite semicircumference, it makes an obtuse angle. In passing, therefore, through all the intermediate gradations from minority to majority, the line DE must find a certain individual position in which it is at right angles to the diameter, and cuts the circle neither on the one side nor on the other.

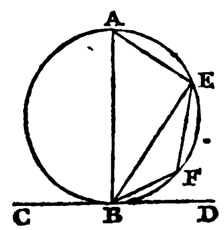
PROP. XXI. THEOR.

If, from the point of contact, a straight line be drawn to cut the circumference, the angles which it makes with the tangent are equal to those in the alternate segments of the circle.

Let CD be a tangent, and BE a straight line drawn from the point of contact, cutting the circle into two segments BAE and BFE; the angle EBD is equal to EAB, and the angle EBC to EFB.

For draw BA perpendicular to CD (I. 5. cor.), join AE, and from any point F in the opposite arc, draw FB and FE.

Because BA is perpendicular to the tangent at B, it is a diameter (III. 20. cor.), and consequently AEFB is a semicircle; wherefore AEB is a right angle (III. 19.), and the remaining acute angles BAE, ABE of the triangle, being together equal to another right angle, are equal to ABE and EBD, which compose the right angle ABD.



Take the angle ABE away from both, and the angle BAE remains equal to EBD.

Again, the opposite angles BAE and BFE of the quadrilateral figure BAEF, being equal to two right angles (III. 17.), are equal to the angle EBD with its adjacent angle EBC; and taking away the equals BAE and EBD, there remains the angle BFE equal to EBC.

Cor. If a straight line meet the circumference of a circle, and make an angle with an inflected line equal to that in the alternate segment, it touches the circle.

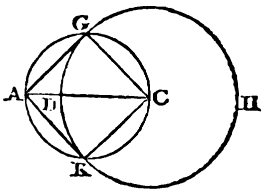
Schol. A tangent may be considered as only a secant arrived at its ultimate position, when the two points through which it is drawn come to coincide. Suppose the straight line joining B and F were extended, it would make with the chord BE an angle EBF, equal to what the arc EF subtends from any point in the opposite circumference. But, when the point F is brought into the situation B, and BF merges into a tangent, the angle EBF passes into EBD, and the angle of the opposite or alternate segment becomes BAE.

PROP. XXII. PROB.

To draw a tangent to a circle, from a given point without it.

Let A be a given point, from which it is required to draw a straight line that shall touch the circle DGH.

Find the centre C (III. 5. cor.), join AC, and on this as a diameter describe the circle AGCK, cutting the given circle in the points G, K: join AG, AK; either of these lines is the tangent required.



For join CG, CK. And the angles CGA, CKA, be-

ing each in a semicircle, are right angles (III. 19.), and consequently AG, AK, touch the circle DGHK at the points G, K (III. 20.).

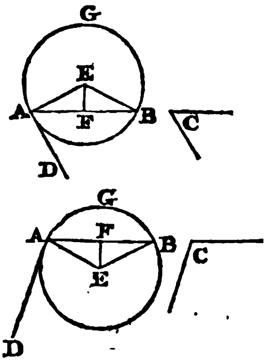
Cor. Hence tangents drawn from the same point to a circle are equal; for the right angled triangles ACG and ACK having the side CG equal to CK, CA common, are equal (I. 21.), and consequently AG is equal to AK.

PROP. XXIII. PROB.

On a given straight line, to describe a segment of a circle that shall contain an angle equal to a given angle.

Let AB be a straight line, on which it is required to describe a segment of a circle containing an angle equal to C.

If C be a right angle, it is evident that the problem will be performed, by describing a semicircle on AB. But if the angle C be either acute or obtuse; draw AD (I. 4.) making an angle BAD equal to C, erect AE (I. 34.), perpendicular to AD, draw EF (I. 5. cor.) to bisect AB at right angles and meeting AE in E, and, from this point as a centre and with the distance EA, describe the required segment AGB.



Because EF bisects AB at right angles, the circle described through A must also pass through (III. 5.) the point B; and since EAD is a right

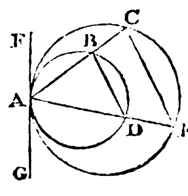
angle, AD touches the circle at A (III. 20.), and the angle BAD, which was made equal to C, is equal (III. 21.) to the angle in the alternate segment AGB.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

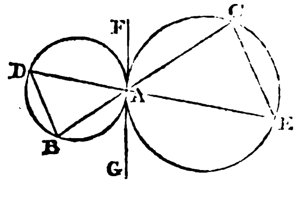
Two straight lines drawn through the point of contact of two circles, intercept arcs of which the chords are parallel.

Let the circles ACE and ABD touch mutually in A, and from this point the straight lines AC, AE be drawn to cut the circumferences; the chords CE and BD are parallel.

For draw the tangent FAG, (III. 20.), which must touch both circles.



In the case of internal contact, the angle GAE is equal to ACE in the alternate segment, (III. 21.); and, for the same reason, GAE or GAD in the smaller circle is equal to ABD; consequently the angles ACE and ABD are equal, and therefore (I. 22.) the straight lines CE and BD are parallel.



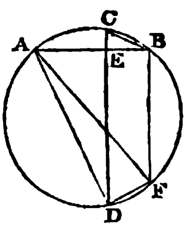
When the contact is external, the angle GAE is still equal to ACE, and its vertical angle FAD is, for the same reason, equal to ABD; whence ACE is equal to ABD; and these being alternate angles, the straight line CE (I. 22.) is parallel to BD.

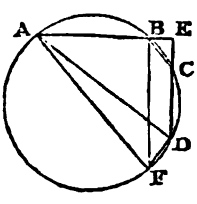
PROP. XXV. THEOR.

If through a point, within or without a circle, two perpendicular lines be drawn to meet the circumference, the squares of all the intercepted distances are together equivalent to the square of the diameter.

Let E be a point within or without a circle, and AB, CD two straight lines drawn through it at right angles to the circumference; the squares of the four segments EA, EB, ED, and EC, are together equivalent to the square of the diameter of the circle.

For draw BF parallel to CD, and join AF, AD, CB, and DF.





Because BF is parallel to CD, the arc BC is equal to the arc FD (III. 18.), and consequently the chord BC is also equal to the chord FD (III. 12. cor. 1.); but BC being the hypotenuse of the right-angled triangle BEC, its square, or that of FD is equivalent to the squares of EB and EC (II. 10.), and AED being likewise right-angled, the square of AD is equivalent to the squares of EA and ED. Whence the squares of AD and FD are equivalent to the four squares of EA, EB, ED, and EC. But since ED is parallel to BF, the interior angle ABF is equal to AED (I. 22.), and

therefore a right angle; consequently ACBF is a semicircle (III. 19. cor.) and AF the diameter. The angle ADF in the opposite semicircle is hence a right angle (III. 19.), and the square of the diameter AF is equivalent to the squares of AD and FD, or to the sum of the squares of the four segments, EA, EB, ED, and EC intercepted between the circumference and the point E.

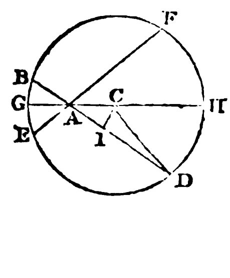
PROP. XXVI. THEOR.

If through a point, within or without a circle, two straight lines be drawn to cut the circumference; the rectangle under the segments of the one, is equivalent to that contained by the segments of the other.

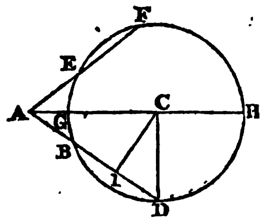
Let the two straight lines AD and AF be extended through the point A, to cut the circumference BFD of a circle; the rectangle contained by the segments AE and AF of the one, is equivalent to the rectangle under AB and AD, the distances intercepted from A in the other.

For draw AC to the centre, and produce it both ways to terminate in the circumference at G and H; let fall the perpendicular CI upon BD (I. 6.), and join CD.

Because CI is perpendicular to AD, the difference between the squares of CA and CD, the sides of the triangle ACD is equivalent to the difference between the squares of the segments AI and ID the segments of the base (II. 21. cor.); and the difference between the squares of two straight lines being equivalent to the rectangle under their sum and their

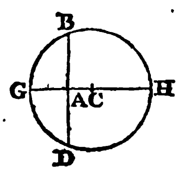


difference (II. 17.), the rectangle contained by the sum and difference of AC, CD is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the sum and difference of AI, ID. But since the radius CG is equal to CH, the sum of AC and CD is AH, and their difference is



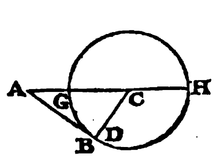
AG; and because the perpendicular CI bisects the chord BD (III. 4.), the sum of AI and ID is AD, and their difference AB. Wherefore the rectangle AH, AG is equivalent to the rectangle AB, AD. In the same way it is proved, that the rectangle AH, AG is equivalent to the rectangle AE, AF; and consequently the rectangle AE, AF, is equivalent to the rectangle AB, AD.

Cor. 1. If the vertex A of the straight lines lie within the circle and the point I coincide with it, BD, being then at right angles to CA, is bisected at A (III. 4.), and the rectangle AB, AD becomes the same as the square of AB. Consequently the square of any perpendicular AB limited by the



circumference is equivalent to the rectangle under the segments AG, AH, into which it divides the diameter.

Cor. 2. If the vertex A lie without the circle and the point I coincide with B or D, the angle ABC being then a right angle, the incident line AB must be a tangent (III. 20.), and consequently the two points of section B and D coalesce in a single point of contact. Where-



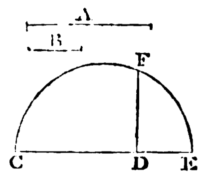
fore the rectangle under the distances AB, AD becomes the same as the square of AB; and consequently the

rectangle contained by the segments AG, AH of the diameter, is equivalent to the square of the tangent AB.

PROP. XXVII. PROB.

To construct a square equivalent to a given rectilineal figure.

Let the rectilineal figure be reduced by Proposition 6. Book II. to an equivalent rectangle, of which A and B are the two containing sides; draw an indefinite straight line CE, in which take the part CD equal to A and DE to B, on the compound line CE describe a semicircle, and from the point D erect the perpendicular DF to meet the circumference in F: this line DF is the side of a square equivalent to the given rectilineal figure.



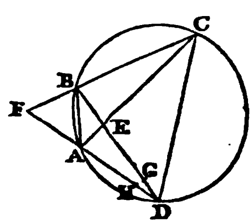
For, by Cor. 1. to the last Proposition, the square of the perpendicular DF is equivalent to the rectangle under the segments CD, DE of the diameter, and is consequently equivalent to the rectangle contained by the sides A and B of a rectangle that was made equivalent to the rectilineal figure.

PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

A quadrilateral figure may have a circle described about it, if the rectangles under the segments made by the intersection of its diagonals be equivalent, or if those rectangles be equivalent

which are contained by the external segments formed by producing its opposite sides.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure, of which AC and BD are the diagonals, and such that the rectangle AE, EC is equivalent to the rectangle BE, ED; a circle may be made to pass through the four points A, B, C, and D.



For through the three points A, B, C (III. 9. cor.), describe a circle and let it cut BD in G. Because AC and BG intersect each other within a circle, the rectangle AE, EC is equivalent to the rectangle BE, EG (III. 26.); but the rectangle AE, EC is by hypothesis equivalent to the rectangle BE, ED. Wherefore BE, EG is equivalent to BE, ED; and these rectangles having a common base BE, their altitudes EG and ED (II. 3. cor.) are equal, and hence the point G is the same as D, or the circle which was described passes though all the four points A, B, C, and D.

Again, if the opposite sides CB and DA be produced to meet at F, and the rectangle CF, FB be equal to DF, FA, a circle may be described about the figure.

For, as before, let a circle be described through the three points A, B, C, but cut the side AD in H. From Proposition 26, the rectangle CF, FB is equivalent to HF, FA; but the rectangle CF, FB is also equivalent to DF, FA; whence the rectangle HF, FA is equivalent to DF, FA; and the base HF equal to DF, or the point H is the same as D.

ELEMENTS

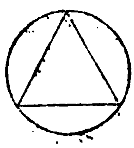
OF

GEOMETRY.

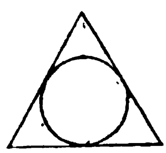
BOOK IV.

DEFINITIONS.

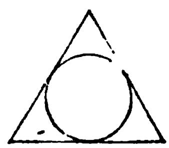
1. A rectilineal figure is said to be *inscribed* in a circle, when all its angular points lie on the circumference.



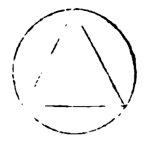
2. A rectilineal figure *circumscribes* a circle, when each of its sides is a tangent.



3. A circle is *inscribed* in a rectilineal figure, when it touches all the sides.



4. A circle is *described* about a rectilineal figure or *circumscribes* it, when the circumference passes through all the angular points of the figure.



5. Polygons are *equilateral*, when their sides, in the same order, are respectively equal: They are *equiangular*, if an equality obtains between their corresponding angles.

6. Polygons are said to be *regular*, when all their sides and their angles are equal.

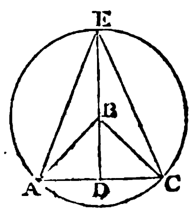
7. A figure of *five* angles or sides is called a *pentagon*; a *six-sided* figure, a *hexagon*; an *eight-sided* figure, an *octagon*; a *ten-sided* figure, a *decagon*; and a *twelve-sided* figure, a *dodecagon*.

PROP. I. PROB.

Given an isosceles triangle, to construct another on the same base, but with only half the vertical angle.

Let ABC be an isosceles triangle standing on AC; it is required, on the same base, to construct another isosceles triangle, that shall have its vertical angle equal to half of the angle ABC.

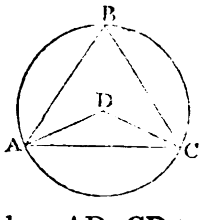
Bisect AC in D (I. 7.), join DB, which produce till BE be equal to BA or BC, and join AE, CE: AEC is the isosceles triangle required.



For, the straight line BE being equal to BA and BC, the point B is the centre of a circle which passes through the points A, E, and C; and consequently the angle ABC is the double of AEC at the circumference (III. 15.), or the vertical angle AEC is half of ABC. But the triangles AED and CED, having the side DA equal to DC, the side DE common to both, and the right angle ADE (III. 4.) equal to CDE, are (I. 3.) equal, and consequently AE is equal to CE. Wherefore the triangle AEC is likewise isosceles.

PROP. II. PROB.

Given an acute-angled isosceles triangle, to construct another on the same base, which shall have double the vertical angle.



Let ABC be an acute-angled isosceles triangle; it is required, on the base AC, to construct another isosceles triangle, having its vertical angle double of the angle ABC.

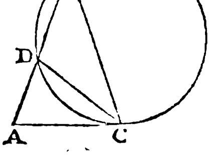
Describe a circle through the three points A, B, and C (III. 9. cor.), and draw AD, CD to the centre D; the triangle ADC is the isosceles triangle required. For the angle ADC, being at the centre of the circle, is (III. 15.) double of ABC, the corresponding angle at the circumference.

PROP. III. THEOR.

If an isosceles triangle have each angle at the base double of the vertical angle, its base will be equal to the greater segment of one of its sides divided by a medial section.

Let ABC be an isosceles triangle which has each of the angles BAC, BCA double of the vertical angle ABC; the base AC is equal to the greater segment formed by a medial section of the side AB.

For draw CD to bisect the angle BCA (I. 5.), and about the triangle BDC describe a circle (III. 9. cor.).



Because the angle BCA is by hypothesis double of ABC and has been bisected by CD, the angles ACD, BCD are each of them equal to CBD, and consequently the side BD is equal to CD (I. 11.). But the triangles BAC and DAC, hav-

ing the angle ACD equal to ABC, and the angle at A common to both, must have also (I. 30.) the remaining angle CDA equal to BCA or CAD; whence (I. 11.) the triangle DAC is likewise isosceles, and the side AC equal to CD; but CD being equal to BD, therefore AC is also equal to it. And since the angle ACD is equal to CBD in the alternate segment of the circle, the straight line AC touches the circumference at C (III. 21. cor.); wherefore the rectangle contained by AB and AD (III. 26. cor. 2.) is equivalent to the square of AC, or the square of BD; or the side AB is cut by a medial section in D, and its greater segment BD is equal to the base AC of the isosceles triangle.

Cor. Hence the interior triangle ACD is likewise isosceles and of the same nature with ABC, having the greater segment of AB for its side, and the smaller segment for its base.

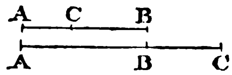
PROP. IV. PROB.

Given either one of the sides, or the base, to construct an isosceles triangle, so that each of the angles at the base may be double of its vertical angle.

First, let one of the sides AB be given, to construct such an isosceles triangle.

Divide AB by a medial section at C (II. 19.), and on CB, as a base with the distance AB for each of the sides, describe an isosceles triangle (I. 1.).

Next, let the base AB be given, to construct an isosceles triangle of this nature.



Produce AB to C, such that the rectangle AC, CB be equal to the square of AB (II. 19. cor. 2.), and on the base AB, with the distance AC for each of the sides, describe an isosceles triangle.

These isosceles triangles will fulfil the conditions required. For it is evident, from the last Proposition, that isosceles triangles constituted on CB or AB, with each of the angles at the base double the vertical angle, would have AB or AC for their sides, and consequently (I. 2.) must coincide with the triangles now described.

Cor. Hence of such an isosceles triangle the vertical angle is equal to the fifth part of two right angles; for each of the angles at the base being double of the vertical angle, they are both equal to four times it, and consequently this vertical angle is the fifth part of all the angles of the triangle, or of two right angles.

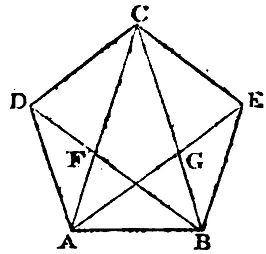
PROP. V. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular pentagon.

Let AB be the straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular five-sided figure.

On AB erect (IV. 4.) the isosceles triangle ACB, having each of the angles at its base double of its vertical angle, from A as a centre with the distance AC describe an arc of a circle, and from B as a centre with the same distance describe another arc, and from the vertex C inflect

the straight lines CE, CD equal to AB: The points C, D, E mark out the pentagon.



For it is evident from this construction that he isosceles triangle CAE, CBD are each of them equal to ACB, whence the angle CBD is equal to ACB or to half of CBA. Wherefore, BF and AG bisect the angles at the base of the triangle ACB, and consequently (IV. 3.) AB is equal to BF and FC, or to AG and GC. Again, the triangles BAD and BFC, having the sides AB, BD equal to BF, BC, and the contained angles equal, are themselves equal (I. 3.), and consequently AB is equal to AD, and the angle BAD equal to BFC, or thrice ACB. In the same way it is shown that AB is equal to BE, and that ABE is thrice ACB. Also the triangles ADB, ABE being isosceles, the angles ADB, AEB are each equal to ACB; but CDB and CEA are double of CB; the whole angles CDA, CEB are each of them triple ACB; and thus, consequently, the angles round the figure are each equal to thrice the vertical angle of the original isosceles triangle.

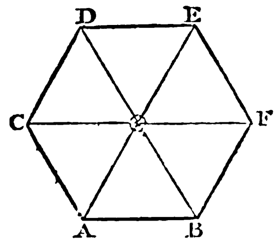
PROP. VI. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular hexagon.

Let AB be the given straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular six-sided figure.

On AB construct (I. 1.) the equilateral triangle AOB, and repeat equal triangles about the vertex O; these triangles will together compose the hexagon required.

Because AOB is an equilateral triangle, each of its angles is equal to the third part of two right angles (I. 30. cor. 1.); wherefore the vertical angle AOB is the sixth part of four right angles, or six of such angles may be placed about the point O. But the bases of the triangles AOB, AOC, COD,



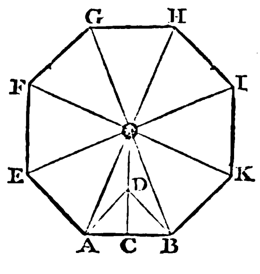
DOE, EOF, and BOF are all equal; and so are the angles at the bases, which, taken by pairs, form the internal angles of the figure BACDEF. This figure is, therefore, a regular hexagon.

PROP. VII. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular octagon.

Let AB be the given straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular eight-sided figure.

Bisect AB (I. 7.) by the perpendicular CD, which make equal to CA or CB, join DA and DB, produce CD until DO be equal to DA or DB, draw AO and BO, thus forming (IV. 1.) an angle equal to the half of ADB, and about the vertex O, repeat the equal triangles AOB, AOE, EOF, FOG, GOH, HOI, IOK, and join KB, to compose the octagon.



For the distances AD, BD are evidently equal; and because CA, CD, and CB are all

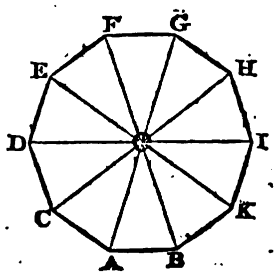
equal, the angle ADB is contained in a semicircle, and is therefore a right angle (III. 19.). Consequently AOB is equal to the half of a right angle, and eight such angles will adapt themselves about the point O: thus the vertical angle of the triangle KOB must be equal to AOB, and also the side BK to AB. Whence the figure BAEFGHIK, having eight equal sides and equal angles, is a regular octagon.

PROP. VIII. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular decagon.

Let AB be the straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular ten-sided figure.

On AB construct (IV. 4.) an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at its base double of the vertical angle, and, about the point O, place a series of triangles all equal to AOB: A regular decagon will result from this composition.



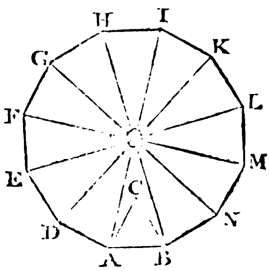
For the vertical angle AOB of the isosceles triangle is equal to the fifth part of two right angles (IV. 4. cor.), or to the tenth part of four right angles; whence ten such angles may be formed about the point O. The figure BACDEFGHIK, having therefore ten equal sides and equal angles, is a regular decagon.

PROP. IX. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular dodecagon.

Let AB be the straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular twelve-sided figure.

On AB construct (I. 1.) the equilateral triangle ACB, and again (IV. 1.) the isosceles triangle AOB, having its vertical angle equal to the half of ACB, and repeat this triangle AOB about the point O; a regular dodecagon will be thus formed.



For ACB being an equilateral triangle, each of its angles is the third part of two right angles (I. 30. cor. 1.); consequently the angle AOB is the sixth part of two right angles or the twelfth part of four right angles, and twelve such angles can, therefore, be placed about the vertex O.

Scholium. Hence a regular twenty-sided figure may be described on a given straight line, by first constructing on it an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base double of the vertical angle, and then erecting another isosceles triangle with its vertical angle equal to the half of this. And, by thus changing the elementary triangle, a regular polygon may be always described, with twice the number of sides.

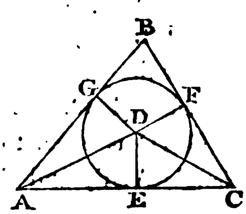
PROP. X. PROB.

In a given triangle, to inscribe a circle.

Let ABC be a triangle, in which it is required to inscribe a circle.

Draw AD and CD (I. 5.) to bisect the angles CAB and ACB, and from their point of concourse D, with its distance DE from the base, describe the circle EFG: This circle will touch the triangle internally.

For let fall the perpendiculars DG and DF upon the sides AB and BC (I. 6.). The triangles ADE, ADG, having the angle DAE equal to DAG, the right angle DEA equal to DGA, and the interjacent side AD common, are equal (I. 20.), and therefore the side DE is equal to DG. In the same manner, it is proved, from the equality of the triangles CDE, CDF, that DE is equal to DF; consequently DG is equal to DF, and the circle passes through the three points E, G, and F. But it also touches (III. 20.) the sides of the triangle in those points, for the angles DEA, DGA, and DFC are all of them right angles.



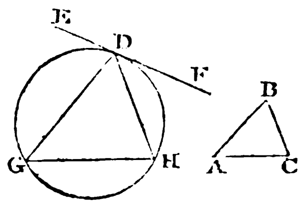
PROP. XI. PROB.

In a given circle, to inscribe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.

Let GDH be a circle, in which it is required to inscribe

a triangle that shall have its angles equal to those of the triangle ABC.

Assuming any point D in the circumference of the circle, draw (III. 22.) the tangent EDF, and make the angles EDG, FDH equal to BCA, BAC, and join GH: The triangle GDH is equiangular to ABC.



For EF being a tangent, and DG drawn from the point of contact, the angle EDG, which was made equal to BCA, is equal to the angle DHG in the alternate segment (III. 21.); consequently DHG is equal to BCA. And for the same reason, the angle DGH is equal to BAC; wherefore (I. 30.) the remaining angle GDH of the triangle GHD is equal to the remaining angle ABC of the triangle ACB, and these triangles are mutually equiangular.

PROP. XII. PROB.

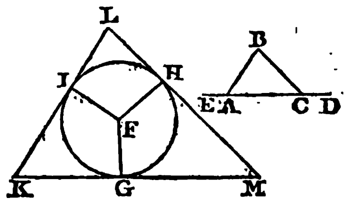
About a given circle, to describe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.

Let GIH be a circle, about which it is required to describe a triangle, having its angles equal to those of the triangle ABC.

Draw any radius FG, and with it make (I. 4.) the angles GFI, GFH equal to the exterior angles BAE, BCD of the triangle ABC, and, from the points G, I, and H

draw the tangents KM, KL, and LM to form the triangle KLM: This triangle is equiangular to ABC.

For all the angles of the quadrilateral figure KIFG being equal to four right angles, and the angles KIF and KGF being each a right angle (III. 20.), the remaining angles GKI and GFI are together equal to two right angles, and consequently equal to the angles BAC and BAE on the same side of the straight line ED. But the angle GFI was made equal to BAE; whence GKI is equal to CAB. In like manner, it may be proved that the angle GMH is equal to ACB; and the angles at K and M being thus equal to BAC and BCA, the remaining angle at L is (I. 30.) equal to that at B, and the two triangles KLM and ABC are therefore equiangular.

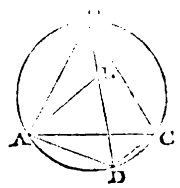


PROP. XIII. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the vertex of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle to any point in the opposite circumference, is equal to the two chords inflected from the same point to the extremities of the base.

Let ABC be an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle, and BD, AD, and CD chords drawn from its three corners to a point D in the circumference; BD which crosses the base AC is equal to AD and CD taken together.

For, from BD cut off DE equal to DA, and join AE. The angle ADB is (III. 16.) equal to ACB in the same segment, which, being the angle of an equilateral triangle, is equal (I. 30. cor. 1.) to the third part of two right angles. But the triangle ADE being isosceles by construction, the angles DAE, DEA at its base are equal (I. 10.), and each of them is, therefore, equal to half of the remaining two-thirds of two right angles, or equal to one-third part. Consequently ADE is likewise an equilateral triangle (I. 11. cor.), and the angle DAE equal to CAB; take CAE from both, and there remains the angle DAC equal to EAB; but the angle ABD is equal to ACD in the same segment. And thus the triangles ADC and AEB have the angles DAC, DCA equal to EAB, EBA, and the interjacent side AC equal to AB; they are consequently equal (I. 20.), and the side DC is equal to EB. But DE was made equal to DA; wherefore DA and DC are together equal to DE and EB, or to DB.



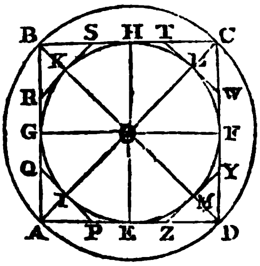
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

About and in a given square, to circumscribe and inscribe a circle.

Let ABCD be a square, about which it is required to circumscribe a circle.

Draw the diagonals AC, DB intersecting each other in O, and, from that point with the distance AO, describe the circle ABCD: This circle will circumscribe the square.

Because the diagonals of the square ABCD are equal and bisect each other, the straight lines OA, OB, OC, and OD are all equal, and consequently the circle described through A passes through the other points B, C, and D.



Again, let it be required to inscribe a circle in the square ABCD.

From O the intersection of the diagonals and with its distance from the side AD, describe the circle EGHF. This circle will touch the square internally.

For let fall the perpendiculars OG, OH, and OF (I. 6.). And because the straight lines AB, BC, CD, and DA are equal, they are equally distant from the centre O of the exterior circle (III. 10.); wherefore the perpendiculars OE, OG, OH, and OF are all equal, and the interior circle passes through the points G, H, and F; but (III. 20.) it likewise touches the sides of the square, since they are perpendicular to the radii drawn from O.

Cor. Hence an octagon may be inscribed within a given square. For let tangents be applied at the points I, K, L, and M, where the diagonals cut the interior circle. It is evident, that the triangle AOE is equal to DOE, IOP to EOP, and EOZ to MOZ; whence the angles POE and ZOE are equal, being the halves of EOA and EOD, and consequently the triangles PEO and ZEO are equal. Wherefore PZ, the double of PE, is equal to PQ, the double of PI; and the angle EZM is, for a like reason, equal to EPI. And, in this manner, all the sides and all the angles about the eight-sided figure PQRSTWYZ are proved to be equal.

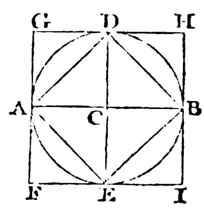
PROP. XV. PROB.

In and about a given circle, to inscribe and circumscribe a square.

Let EADB be a circle in which it is required to inscribe a square.

Draw the diameter AB, cross it by the perpendicular ED through the centre, and join AD, DB, BE, and EA: The inscribed figure ADBE is a square.

The angles about the centre C, being right angles, are equal to each other, and are, therefore, subtended by equal chords AD, DB, BE, and AE, but one of the angles ADB, being in a semicircle, is (III. 19.) a right angle, and consequently ADBE is a square.



Next, let it be required to circumscribe a square about the circle.

Apply tangents FG, GH, HI, and FI at the extremities of the perpendicular diameters: These will form a square.

For all the angles of the quadrilateral figure CG, being together equal to four right angles, and those at C, A, and D being each a right angle, the remaining angle at G is also a right angle, and CG is a rectangle; but it is likewise a square, since AC is equal to CD. In the same manner, CH, CI, and CF are proved to be squares; the sides FG, GH, HI, and IF of the exterior figure, being therefore the doubles of equal lines, are mutually equal, and the angle at G being a right angle, FH is consequently a square.

Cor. Hence the circumscribing square is double of the inscribed square, and this again is double of the square constructed on the radius of the circle.

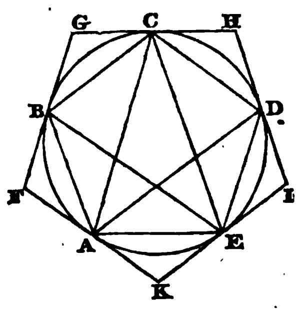
PROP. XVI. PROB.

In and about a given circle, to inscribe and circumscribe a regular pentagon.

Let ABCDE be a circle in which it is required to inscribe a regular pentagon.

Construct an isosceles triangle having each of its angles at the base double of its vertical angle (IV. 4.), and equiangular to this, inscribe the triangle ACE within the circle (IV. 11.), draw AD, EB bisecting the angles CAE, CEA (I. 5.), and join AB, BC, CD, and DE: The figure ABCDE is a regular pentagon.

For the angles AEB, BEC are each the half of CEA, and therefore equal to ACE; but the angles EAD, DAC are likewise equal to ACE. Hence these angles, being all equal, must stand on equal arcs (III. 16. cor.); and the chords of these arcs, or the sides AB, BC, CD, DE, and AE are equal (III. 12. cor.)



And because the segments EAB, ABC, BCD, CDE, and DEA are evidently equal (III. 16.), the interior angles of the figure are all equal, and it is, therefore, a regular pentagon.

Next, let it be required to circumscribe a regular pentagon about the circle.

At the points A, B, C, D, and E apply tangents; these will form a regular pentagon.

For FAK being a tangent, the angle KAE is equal to ACE (III. 21.); and in like manner it is shown that the angles AEK, DEI, EDI, CDH, DCH, BCG, CBG,

ABF, BAF are all equal to ACE. The isosceles triangles AKE, BFA, having therefore the angles at the base equal and the bases themselves AE, AB, are equal (I. 20.); for the same reason, the triangles BGC, CHD, DIE, EKA, are equal. Whence the internal angles of the figure are equal, and its sides, being double of those of the annexed triangles, are likewise equal: The figure is, therefore, a regular pentagon.

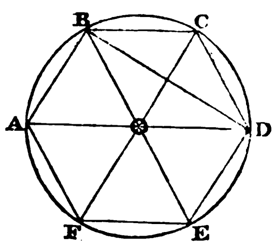
PROP. XVII. PROB.

To inscribe a regular hexagon in a given circle.

Let it be required, in the circle FBD, to inscribe a hexagon.

Draw the radius OA, on which construct the equilateral triangle ABO (I. 1. cor.), and repeat the equal triangles about the vertex O: These triangles will compose a hexagon.

For the triangle ABO, being equilateral, each of its angles AOB is the third part of two right angles, and consequently six of such angles may be placed about the centre O. But the bases of the triangles AOB, BOC, COD, DOE, EOF, and FOA form the sides of the figure, and the angles at those bases its internal angles; wherefore it is a regular hexagon.



Cor. 1. Tangents applied at the points A, B, C, D, E, F, would evidently form a regular circumscribing hexagon. An equilateral triangle might be inscribed by joining the alternate points; and, by applying tangents at those points,

an equilateral triangle would be made to circumscribe the circle.

Cor. 2. The side AB of the inscribed hexagon is equal to the radius; and since ABD is a right-angled triangle, and the squares of AB and BD are equal to the square of AD, or to four times the square of AO, the square of BD the side of an inscribed equilateral triangle is triple the square of the radius.

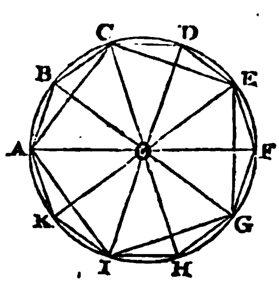
Cor. 3. The perimeter of the inscribed hexagon is equal to six times the radius, or three times the diameter, of the circle. Hence the circumference of a circle being, from its perpetual curvature, greater than any intermediate system of straight lines, is more than triple its diameter.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

To inscribe a regular decagon in a given circle.

Let ADH be a circle, in which it is required to inscribe a regular decagon.

Draw the radius OA, and with OA as its side describe the isosceles triangle AOB, having each of its angles at the base double of its vertical angle (IV. 4.), repeat the equal triangles about the centre O: These triangles will compose a decagon.



For the vertical angle AOB of the component isosceles triangle, is the fifth part of two right angles (IV. 4. cor.), and consequently ten such angles can be placed about the point O. But the sides and angles of the resulting figure are all evidently equal; it is, therefore, a regular decagon.

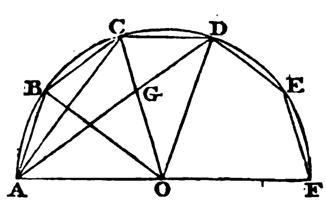
Cor. Hence a regular pentagon will be formed by joining the alternate points A, C, E, G, I, and A. It is also manifest, that a decagon and a pentagon may be circumscribed about the circle, by applying tangents at their several angular points.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

The square of the side of a pentagon inscribed in a circle, is equivalent to the squares of the sides of the inscribed hexagon and decagon.

Let ABCDEF be half of a decagon inscribed in a circle whose diameter is AF; the square of AC, the side of an inscribed pentagon, is equivalent to the square of AB the side of the inscribed decagon, and of the square of the radius AO, or the side of an inscribed hexagon.

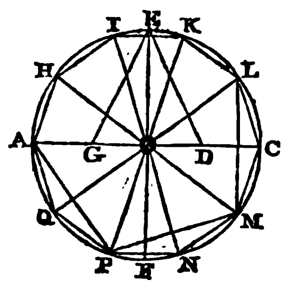
For join AD, and draw OB, OC, and OD. Since the arc DEF is double of AB, the angle AOB at the centre is (III. 15.) evidently equal to OAD or OAG at the circumference; and because the arc BCDEF again is double of DEF, the angle OAB at the circumference is likewise equal to AOG at the centre. Whence the triangles AOB and AGO, having the angles OAB and AOB equal to AOG and OAG, and the interjacent side AO common, are equal (I. 20.), and therefore the base AB is equal to OG. Consequently, (IV. 18.) GAO is an isosceles triangle, having each of the angles at its base double the vertical angle;



wherefore (IV. 3.) OG is equal to the greater segment of the side AO divided by a medial section, and consequently OC is divided at G by a medial section. But (II. 20.) the square of AC, drawn from the vertex to a point in the extension of the base of the triangle OAG, is equivalent to the square of AG, together with the rectangle under OC and CG, that is, to the square of OG. Whence the square of AC, the side of the inscribed pentagon, is equivalent to the squares of AO and of AB, the sides of the hexagon and decagon.

Cor. The triple chord AD of the decagon is equal to the annexed sides AO and AB of the inscribed hexagon and decagon. For the triangle OAG, being equal to AOB or COD, the angle DCO or DCG is equal to AGO or DGC, and consequently (I. 11.) CD is equal to GD. Wherefore AD being equal to AG and GD, is equal to AO together with OG or AB.

Scholium. Hence the sides of the inscribed decagon and pentagon may be found by a single construction. For draw the perpendicular diameters AC and EF, bisect OC in D, join DE, make DG equal to it, and join GE. It is evident that AO is cut medially in G (II. 19.), and consequently that OG is equal to a side of the inscribed decagon. But GOE being a right-angled triangle, the square of GE is equivalent to the squares of GO and OE (II. 10.), or the squares of the sides of the decagon and hexagon; whence GE is equal to the side of the inscribed pentagon. It also follows, that CG is equal to CI or CP, the triple chords of the inscribed decagon.

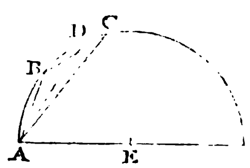


PROP. XX. PROB.

In a given circle, to inscribe regular polygons of fifteen and of thirty sides.

Let AB and BC be the sides of an inscribed decagon, and AD the side of a hexagon likewise inscribed; the arc BD will be the fifteenth part of the circumference of the circle, and DC the thirtieth part.

For, if the circumference consisted of thirty equal portions, the arc AB would be equal to three of these, and the arc AD to five; consequently the excess BD is equal to two of these portions, or it is the fifteenth part of the whole circumference. Again, the double arc ABC being equal to six portions, and ABD to five, the defect DC is equal to one portion, or to the thirtieth part of the circumference.



Scholium. From the inscription of the square, the pentagon, and the hexagon,—may be derived that of a variety of other regular polygons: For, by continually bisecting the intercepted arcs and inserting new chords, the inscribed figure will, at each successive operation, have the number of its sides doubled. Hence polygons will arise of 6, 8, and 10 sides; then of 12, 16, and 20; next of 24, 32, and 40; again, of 48, 64, and 80; and so forth repeatedly. The excess of the arc of the hexagon above that of the decagon, gives the arc of a fifteen-sided figure; and the continued bisection of this arc will mark out polygons with 30, 60, or 120 equal sides, in perpetual succession.

The same results might also be obtained from the differences of the preceding arcs.

Of the regular polygons, three only are susceptible of perfect adaptation, and capable therefore of covering, by their repeated addition, a plane surface. These are the equilateral triangle, the square, and the hexagon. The angles of an equilateral triangle are each two-thirds of a right angle, those of a square are right angles, and the angles of a hexagon are each equal to four-third parts of a right angle. Hence there may be constituted about a point six equilateral triangles, four squares, and three hexagons. But no other regular polygon can admit of a like disposition. The pentagon, for instance, having each of its angles equal to six-fifths of a right angle, would not fill up the whole space about a point, on being repeated three times; yet it would do more than cover that space, if added four times,—forming when tripled only three right angles and three-fifths, but when quadrupled, four right angles, and four-fifths. On the other hand, since each angle of a polygon which has more than six sides must exceed four-third parts of a right angle, three such polygons cannot stand round a point. Nor can the space about a point ever be bisected by the application of any regular polygons, of whatever number of sides; for their angles are always necessarily each less than two right angles.

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY.

BOOK V.

OF PROPORTION.

The preceding Books treat of magnitude as *concrete*, or having mere extension; and the simpler properties of lines, of angles, and of surfaces, were deduced, by a continuous process of reasoning, grounded on the principle of superposition. But this mode of investigation, how satisfactory soever to the mind, is by its nature very limited and laborious. By introducing the idea of *Number* into geometry, a new scene is opened, and a far wider prospect rises into view. Magnitude, being considered as *discrete*, or composed of integrant parts, becomes assimilated to *multitude*; and under this aspect, it presents a vast system of

relations, which may be traced out with the utmost facility.

Numbers were at first employed, to denote the aggregation of separate, though kindred, objects; but the subdivision of *extent*, whether actually effected or only conceived to exist, bestowing on each portion a sort of individuality, they came afterwards to acquire a more comprehensive application. In comparing together two quantities of the same kind, the one may *contain* the other, or be *contained* by it; that is, the one may result from the repeated addition of the other, or it may in its turn produce this other by a process of successive composition. The one quantity is, therefore, equal, either to so many times the other, or to a certain aliquot part of it.

Such seems to be the simplest of the numerical relations. It is very confined, however, in its application, and is evidently, in this shape, insufficient altogether for the purpose of general comparison. But that object is attained, by adopting some intermediate term of reference. Though a quantity should neither contain another exactly, nor be contained by it; there may yet exist a third and smaller quantity, which is at once capable of *measuring* them both. This *measure* corresponds to the arithmetical unit; and as *number* denotes the collection of units, so *quantity* may be viewed as the aggregate of its component measures.

But mathematical quantities are not all suscep-

tible of such perfect mensuration. Two quantities may be *conceived* to be so constituted, as not to admit of any other quantity that will measure them completely, or be contained in both of them without leaving a remainder. Yet this apparent imperfection, which proceeds entirely from the infinite variety ascribed to possible magnitude, creates no real obstacle to the progress of accurate science. The measure or primary element, being assumed in succession still smaller and smaller, its corresponding remainder must be perpetually diminished. This continued exhaustion will hence approach nearer than any assignable difference to its absolute term.

Quantities in general can, therefore, either exactly or to any required degree of precision, be represented abstractly by numbers; and thus the science of Geometry is at last brought under the dominion of Arithmetic.

It is obvious, that quantities of any kind must have the same composition, when each contains its measure the same number of times. But quantities, viewed in pairs, may be considered as having a similar composition, if the corresponding terms of each pair contain its measure equally. Two pairs of quantities of a similar composition, being thus formed by the same distinct aggregations of their elementary parts, constitute a *Proportion.*

DEFINITIONS.

1. Quantities are *homogeneous*, which can be added together.

2. One quantity is said to *contain* another, when the subtraction of the smaller—continued if necessary—leaves no remainder.

3. A quantity which is contained in another, is said to *measure* it.

4. The quantity which is measured by another, is called its *multiple;* and that which measures the other, its *submultiple.*

5. *Like* multiples and submultiples are those which contain their measures equally, or which equally measure their corresponding compounds.

6. Quantities are *commensurable*, which have a finite common measure; they are *incommensurable*, if they will admit of no such measure.

7. That relation which one quantity is *conceived* to bear to another in regard to their composition, is named a *ratio.*

8. When both terms of comparison are equal, it is called a ratio of *equality;* if the first of these be greater than

the second, it is a ratio of *majority*; and if the first be less than the second, it is a ratio of *minority*.

9. A *proportion* or *analogy* consists in the identity of ratios.

10. Four quantities are said to be *proportional*, when a submultiple of the first is contained in the second as often as a like submultiple of the third is contained in the fourth.

11. Of proportional quantities, the first of each pair is named the *antecedent*, and the second the *consequent*.

12. The antecedents are *homologous* terms; and so are the consequents.

13. One antecedent is said *to be* to its consequent *as* another antecedent *to* its consequent.

14. The first and last terms of a proportion are called the *extremes*, and the intermediate ones, the *means*.

15. A ratio is *direct*, if it follows the order of the terms compared; it is *inverse* or *reciprocal*, when it holds a reversed order.

Thus, if the ratio of A to B be considered as *direct*, the ratio of B to A is *inverse* or *reciprocal*.

16. Quantities form a *continued proportion*, when the intermediate terms stand in the double relation of consequents and antecedents.

17. When a proportion consists of three terms, the middle one is said to be a *mean proportional* between the two extremes.

18. The ratio which one quantity has to another may be considered as *compounded* of all the connecting ratios among any interposed quantities.

Thus, the ratio of A to D is viewed as *compounded* of that of A to B, that of B to C, and that of C to D.

19. Of quantities in a continued proportion, the first is said to have to the third, the *duplicate* ratio of what it has to the second; to have to the fourth, a *triplicate* ratio; to the fifth, a *quadruplicate* ratio; and so forth, according to the number of ratios introduced between the extreme terms.

20. If quantities be continually proportional, the ratio of the first to the second is called the *subduplicate* of the ratio of the first to the third, the *subtriplicate* of the ratio of the first to the fourth, &c.

To facilitate the language of demonstration relative to numbers or abstract quantities, it is expedient to adopt a clear and concise mode of notation.

1. The sign $=$ expresses *equality*, $>$ *majority*, and $<$ *minority*: Thus $A = B$ denotes that A is equal to B,

$A > B$ signifies that A is greater than B, and $A < B$ imports that A is less than B.

2. The signs $+$ and $-$ mark the addition and subtraction of the quantities to which they are prefixed: Thus, $A + B$ denotes that B is to be joined to A, and $A - B$ signifies that B is to be taken away from A. Sometimes these two symbols are combined together: Thus, $A \pm B$ represents either the sum of A and B, or the excess of A above B.

3. To express multiplication, the quantities are placed close together; or they may be connected by the full point (.), or the St Andrew's cross $\times$: Thus, AB, or A.B, or $A \times B$, denotes the product of A by B; and ABC indicates the result of the continued multiplication of A by B, and of this product again by C.

4. When the same number is repeatedly multiplied, the product is termed its *power*, and the number itself, in reference to that power, is called the *root*. The notation is here still farther abridged, by retaining only a single letter with a small figure over it, to mark how often it is understood to be repeated: This figure serves also to distinguish the order of the power. Thus AA, or A^2, signifies that A is multiplied by A, and that the product is the *second power* of A; and AAA, or A^3, in like manner, imports that AA is again multiplied by A, and that the result is the *third power* of A.

5. The roots are denoted, by prefixing a contracted *r*, or the symbol $\surd$. Thus $\surd A$ or $\sqrt[2]{A}$ marks the *second root* of A, or that number of which A is the second power; $\sqrt[3]{A}$ signifies the *third root* of A, or the number which has A for its third power.

6. To represent the multiplication of complex quantities, they are included by a parenthesis. Thus, A(B+C—D) denotes that the amount of B+C—D, considered as a single quantity, is multiplied into A.

7. Ratios and analogies are expressed, by inserting points in pairs between the terms. Thus A : B denotes the ratio of A to B; and the compound symbols A : B : : C : D, signify that the ratio of A to B is the same as that of C to D, or that A is to B as C to D.

8. The result of the multiplication of two numbers is called their *product*, and, in reference to it, the numbers themselves are termed *factors*.

9. A *divisor* is the number contained in another called the *dividend*, and the *quotient* expresses how often it is so contained. The dividend, or containing number, is hence the same as the product of the divisor by the quotient.

PROP. I. THEOR.

The product of a number into the sum or difference of two numbers, is equal to the sum or difference of its products by those numbers.

Let A, B, and C be three numbers; the product of the sum or difference of B and C by the number A, is equal to the sum or difference of the separate products AB and AC.

For the product AB is the same as each unit contained in B repeated A times, and the product AC is the same as the units in C likewise repeated A times; whence the sum of the products AB and AC is equal to the units contained in both B and C, all repeated A times, or it is equal to the sum of the numbers B and C multiplied by A. Again, for the same reason, the difference between the products AB and AC must be equal to the difference between the units contained in B and in C, repeated A times; that is, it must be equal to the difference between the numbers B and C multiplied by A.

Cor. 1. Hence a number which measures any two numbers, will measure also their sum and their difference.

Cor. 2. It is hence manifest, that the first part of the proposition may be extended to more numbers than two; or that $AB+AC+AD+$, &c. $=A(B+C+D+$, &c.)

PROP. II. THEOR.

The product which arises from the continued multiplication of any numbers, is the same in whatever order this operation be performed.

Let A and B be two numbers; the product AB is equal to BA.

For the product AB is the same as each unit in B added together A times, or as often as there are units in A, which is evidently the same thing as A itself repeated B times, that is, BA.

Next, let there be three numbers A, B, and C; the products ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, and CBA are all equal.

For put D=AB or BA; then DC=CD, that is, ABC =CAB, and BAC=CBA.

Again, put E=AC or CA; then EB=BE, that is, ACB=BAC, and CAB=BCA.

Lastly, put F=BC or CB; then FA=AF, that is, BCA=ABC, and CBA=ACB.

And thus the several products are all mutually equal.

It is also manifest, that the same mode of reasoning might be extended to the products of any multitude of numbers.

Cor. Hence the permutations of quantities may be easily found. Thus AB can be written only two ways; but the changes are tripled in ABC, or multiplied to six; they are again quadrupled in ABCD, which admits of twenty-four different arangements; and the five letters A, B, C, D, E, might, for the same reason, be disposed no fewer than an hundred twenty ways.

PROP. III. THEOR.

Homogeneous quantities are proportional to their like multiples or submultiples.

Let A, B be two quantities of the same kind, and pA, pB their like multiples; then $A : B :: pA : pB$.

For, since A and B are capable of being measured to any required degree of precision, suppose a to be the measure which A and B contain m and n times, or that $A = m.a$ and $B = n.a$; consequently $pA = p.ma$, and $pB = p.na$. But (V. 2.) $p.ma = m.pa$, and $p.na = n.pa$. Wherefore a and pa are like submultiples of A and of pA, which contain them respectively m times; and these like submultiples are both contained equally, or n times, in B and in pB. Consequently (V. def. 10.) the quantities A, B, and pA, pB are proportional; and A, pA are the antecedents, and B, pB, the consequents, of the analogy.

Again, because the ratio of pA to pB is thus the same as that of A to B, which, in reference to pA and pB, are only like submultiples, it follows that homogeneous quantities are also proportional to their like submultiples.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

In proportional quantities, according as the first term is greater, equal, or less than the second, the third term is greater, equal, or less than the fourth.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; if $A > B$, then $C > D$; if $A = B$, then $C = D$; or if $A < B$, then $C < D$.

For, if A be greater than B, then the measure or submultiple of A must be contained oftener in B, and hence

the like submultiple of C will be contained oftener in D wherefore C is greater than D.

If A be equal to B, the measure of A is contained equally in B, and hence that of C in D, or C is equal to D.

But, if A be less than B, the measure of A is not contained so often in B, and hence the measure of C is not contained so often in D, or C is less than D.

Scholium. On this proposition is grounded the mode of stating a proportion in the Rule of Three, while the arithmetical operation itself will be found to depend on Proposition VI.

PROP. V. THEOR.

Of four proportionals, if the first be a multiple or submultiple of the second, the third is a like multiple or submultiple of the fourth.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; if $A=pB$, then $C=pD$.

For, suppose the approximate measures of A and C to be a and c, and let $A=mp.a$, and $C=mp.c$. It is evident, from the hypothesis, that $A=pB=mp.a$, or $B=m.a$; but the consequents B and D must contain their measures equally (V. def. 10.), and therefore $D=m.c$. Whence $C=mp.c=$ (V. 2.) $p.mc=pD$.

Again, if $qA=B$; then will $qC=D$.

For, let $A=na$, and $C=nc$; therefore $B=qA=qna=$ (V. 2.) $nq.a$, and, from the definition of proportion, $D=nq.c=$ (V. 2.) $q.nc=qC$.

PROP. VI. THEOR.

If four numbers be proportional, the product of the extremes is equal to that of the means; and of two equal products, the factors are convertible into an analogy, of which these form severally the extreme and the mean terms.

Let A : B : : C : D; then AD=BC.

For (V. 3.) A.D : B.D : : B.C : B.D; and the second term of this analogy being equal to the fourth, therefore (V. 4.) AD=BC.

Again, let AD=BC; then A : B : : C : D.

For, by identity of ratios, AD : BD : : BC : BD, and hence (V. 3.) A : B : : C : D.

Cor. 1. Hence the greatest and least terms of a proportion, are either extremes or means.

Cor. 2. Hence also a proportion is not affected, by transposing or interchanging its extreme and mean terms.—On this principle are founded the two following theorems.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

The terms of an analogy are proportional by *inversion*, or the second is to the first, as the fourth to the third.

Let A : B : : C : D; then *inversely* B : A : : D : C.

For the extreme and mean terms are thus only mutually interchanged, and consequently the same equality of products AD and BC (V. 2.) still obtains.

PROP. VIII. THEOR.

Numbers are proportional by *alternation*, or the first is to the third, as the second to the fourth.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; then *alternately* $A : C :: B : D$. For the extreme terms being still retained, the mean terms are merely transposed with respect to each other; the same equality of products, therefore, likewise here subsists.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

The terms of an analogy are proportional by *composition*; or the sum of the first and second is to the second, as the sum of the third and fourth to the fourth.

Let $A : B :: C : D$, then by *composition* $A+B : B :: C+D : D$.

Because $A : B :: C : D$, the product $AD=BC$ (V. 6.); add to each of these the product BD, and $AD+BD=BC+BD$. But (V. 1.) $AD+BD=D(A+B)$, and $BC+BD=B(C+D)$; wherefore (V. 6.) assuming the factors of these equal products for the extreme and mean terms, $A+B : B :: C+D : D$.

PROP. X. THEOR.

The terms of an analogy are proportional by *division*; or the difference of the first and second is to the second, as the difference of the third and fourth to the fourth.

Let A : B : : C : D; suppose A to be greater than B, then will C be greater than D (V. 4.): It is to be proved that A—B : B : : C—D : D.

For, since A : B : : C : D, the product AD=BC (V. 6.), and, taking BD from both, the compound product AD—BD is equal to BC—BD; wherefore, by resolution, (A—B)D=B(C—D), and consequently A—B : B : : C—D : D.

If B be greater than A, then BD—AD=BD—BC, and, by resolution, (B—A) D=B (D—C); whence B—A : B : : D—C : D.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

The terms of an analogy are proportional by *conversion*; that is, the first is to the sum or difference of the first and second, as the third to the sum or difference of the third and fourth.

Let A : B : : C : D, and suppose A>B; then A : A±B : : C : C±D.

For, since (V. 6.) the product AD=BC, add or sub-

stract these to or from the product AC; and $AC \pm AD = AC \pm BC$. Wherefore, by resolution, $A(C \pm D) = C(A \pm B)$, and consequently $A : A \pm B :: C : C \pm D$.

If $A \angle B$, then $AD - AC = BC - AC$, and, by resolution, $A(D-C) = C(B-A)$, whence $A : B-A :: C : D-C$.

Cor. Hence, by inversion, $A \pm B : A :: C \pm D : C$, or $B-A : A :: D-C : C$.

PROP. XII. THEOR.

The terms of an analogy are proportional by *mixing*; or the sum of the first and second is to the difference, as the sum of the third and fourth to their difference.

Let $A : B :: C : D$, and suppose $A > B$; then $A+B : A-B :: C+D : C-D$.

For, by conversion, $A : A+B :: C : C+D$, and alternately $A : C :: A+B : C+D$.

Again, by conversion, $A : A-B :: C : C-D$, and alternately $A : C :: A-B : C-D$. Whence, by identity of ratios, $A+B : C+D :: A-B : C-D$, and alternately $A+B : A-B :: C+D : C-D$.

The same reasoning will hold if A be less than B, the order of these terms being only changed.

PROP. XIII. THEOR.

A proportion will subsist, if the homologous terms be multiplied by the same numbers.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; then $pA : qB :: pC : qD$.

For, since $A : B :: C : D$, alternately $A : C :: B : D$; but the ratio of A to C is the same as $pA : pC$ (V. 3.), and the ratio of B to D is the same as $qB : qD$. Wherefore $pA : pC :: qB : qD$, and, by alternation, $pA : qB :: pC : qD$.

Cor. The proposition may be extended likewise to the division of homologous terms, by employing submultiples.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

The greatest and least terms of a proportion, are together greater than the intermediate ones.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; and A being supposed to be the greatest term, the other extreme D is the least (V. 6. cor. 1.): The sum of A and D is greater than the sum of B and C.

Because $A : B :: C : D$, by conversion $A : A-B :: C : C-B$, and alternately $A : C :: A-B : C-D$; but A being the greatest term, is therefore greater than C, and consequently (V. 4.) $A-B$ is greater than $C-D$; to each add $B+D$, and $A+D$ is greater than $B+C$.

The same reasoning is applicable, if any other term of the analogy be supposed the greatest.

Cor. Hence the mean term of three proportionals, is less than half the sum of both extremes.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

If two analogies have the same antecedents, another analogy may be formed, having the consequents of the one for its antecedents, and the consequents of the other for its consequents.

Let A : B :: C : D and A : E :: C : F; then B : E :: D : F.

For, alternating the first analogy, A : C :: B : D, and alternating the second, A : C :: E : F; whence, by identity of ratios, B : D :: E : F. This inference is named a *direct equality.*

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

If the consequents of one analogy be antecedents in another, a third analogy will arise, having the same antecedents as the former, and the same consequents as the latter.

Let A : B :: C : D, and B : E :: D : F; then A : E :: C : F.

For, alternating both analogies, A : C :: B : D, and

B : D : : E : F; whence, by identity of ratios, A : C : : E : F. This conclusion is also named a *direct equality*.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

If two analogies have the same means, the extremes of the one, with those of the other as the mean terms, will form a third analogy.

Let A : B : : C : D, and E : B : : C : F; then A : E : : F : D.

For, since A : B : : C : D, AD=BC (V. 6.); and because E : B : : C : F, EF=BC. Whence AD=EF, and A : E : : F : D.

Cor. Hence the extreme and mean terms being interchangeable, it likewise follows, that, if A : B : : C : D, and A : E : : F : D, then B : E : : F : C.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

If the extremes of one analogy are the mean terms in another, a third analogy will subsist, having the means of the former as its extremes, and the extremes of the latter as its means.

Let A : B : : C : D, and E : A : : D : F; then B : E : : F : C.

For, from the first analogy AD=BC, and, from the se-

cond, EF=AD; whence BC=EF, and consequently B : E : : F : C.

Cor. Hence also, if A : B : : C : D and B : E : : F : C; then E : A : : D : F. The principle of this and the preceding Proposition is named *inverse*, or *perturbate*, *equality*.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

If there be any number of proportionals, as one antecedent is to its consequent, so is the sum of all the antecedents to the snm of all the consequents.

Let A : B : : C : D : : E : F : : G : H; then A : B : : A+C+E+G : B+D+F+H.

Because A : B : : C : D, (V. 6.) AD=BC; and, since A : B : : E : F, AF=BE, and, for the same reason, AH =BG. Consequently, the aggregate products AB+AD +AF+AH=BA+BC+BE+BG; and, by resolution, A(B+D+F+H)=B(A+C+E+G); whence A : B : : A+C+E+G : B+D+F+H.

Cor. 1. It is obvious, that the Proposition will extend likewise to the difference of the homologous terms, and may, therefore, be more generally expressed thus : A : B: A±C±E±G : B±D±F±H.

Cor. 2. Hence, in a succession of proportionals, as one antecedent is to its consequent, so is the sum or difference of the several antecedents to the corresponding sum or difference of the consequents. For, if A : B : : C : D : : E : F,

then, by corollary 1, A : B :: A$\pm$C$\pm$E : B$\pm$D$\pm$F, or (V. 8.) A : A$\pm$C$\pm$E :: B : B$\pm$D$\pm$F; wherefore (V. 11.) A : C$\pm$E :: B : D$\pm$F, and (V. 8.) A : B :: C$\pm$E : D$\pm$F.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

If two analogies have the same antecedents, another analogy may be formed with these antecedents, and the sum or difference of the consequents.

Let A : B :: C : D, and A : E :: C : F; then A : B$\pm$E :: C : D$\pm$F. For, by alternation, these analogies become A : C :: B : D, and A : C :: E : F; whence (V. 19. cor. 2.) A : C :: B$\pm$E : D$\pm$F, and alternately, A : B$\pm$E :: C : D$\pm$F.

Cor. If A : B :: C : D, and E : B :: F : D; then A$\pm$E : B :: C$\pm$F : D. For, by alternating the analogies, A : C :: B : D, and E : F :: B : D; whence (V. 19. cor. 2.) B : D :: A$\pm$E : C$\pm$F, and, by alternation and inversion, A$\pm$E : B :: C$\pm$F : D.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

In continued proportionals, the difference between the first and second is to the first as the difference between the first and last terms to the sum of all the terms excepting the last.

Let $A : B :: B : C :: C : D :: D : E$; then if $A > B$, $A - B : A :: A - E : A + B + C + D$.

For (V. 19.), $A : B :: A + B + C + D : B + C + D + E$, and consequently (V. 11. cor.), $A - B : A :: (A + B + C + D) - (B + C + D + E) : A + B + C + D$; that is, omitting $B + C + D$ in the third term, $A - B : A :: A - E : A + B + C + D$.

If $A < B$, then $B - A : A :: (B + C + D + E) - (A + B + C + D) : A + B + C + D$, that is, $B - A : A :: E - A : A + B + C + D$.

The same reasoning, it is evident, will hold for any number of terms.

Scholium. Hence the summation of continued progressions, such as $A : B :: B : C :: C : D :: D : E$, whether ascending or descending, is easily derived; and hence also the limit of a perpetually descending progression may be discovered, for it is evidently the fourth proportional to the difference between the first and second term, the first term itself, and the last.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

The products of the like terms of any numerical proportions, are themselves proportional.

Let $A : B :: C : D$
$E : F :: G : H$
$I : K :: L : M$;

then $AEI : BFK :: CGL : DHM$.

For (V. 6.), from the first analogy $AD = BC$, from the second analogy $EH = FG$, and from the third analogy $IM = KL$; whence the compound product $AD.EH.IM = BC.FG.KL$. But $AD.EH.IM = AEI.DHM$ (V. 2.), and $BC.FG.KL = BFK.CGL$; wherefore $AEI.DHM = BFK.CGL$, and consequently (V. 6.) $AEI : BFK :: CGL : DHM$.

The same reason, it is obvious, will apply to any number of proportionals.

Cor. 1. Hence the powers of the successive terms of numerical proportions, are likewise proportional. For, if $A : B :: C : D$, and, repeating the analogy, $A : B :: C : D$; then, by multiplication, $AA : BB :: CC : DD$, or $A^2 : B^2 :: C^2 : D^2$.

Again, let $A : B :: C : D$, and, repeating the analogy,

$$A : B :: C : D,$$

and $A : B :: C : D$; whence, by multiplying the corresponding terms,

$$A^3 : B^3 :: C^3 : D^3.$$

And so the induction may be pursued generally.

Cor. 2. Hence also the roots of the terms of a numerical proportion, are proportional. If $A : B :: C : D$, then $\sqrt{A} : \sqrt{B} :: \sqrt{C} : \sqrt{D}$. For let $\sqrt{A} : \sqrt{B} :: \sqrt{C} : \sqrt{E}$, and, by the last corollary, $A : B :: C : E$; but $A : B :: C : D$, whence $C : E :: C : D$, and consequently $E = D$, or $\sqrt{A} : \sqrt{B} :: \sqrt{C} : \sqrt{D}$.—In the same manner, it may be shewn in general, that, if $A : B :: C : D$, $\sqrt[n]{A} : \sqrt[n]{B} :: \sqrt[n]{C} : \sqrt[n]{D}$.

PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

The ratio which is conceived to be compounded of other ratios, is the same as that of the products of their corresponding numerical expressions.

Suppose the ratio of $A : D$ is compounded of $A : B$, of $B : C$, and of $C : D$, and let $A : B :: K : L$, let $B : C ::$

M : N, and let C : D : : O : P; then will A : D : : KMO : LNP.

For, since A : B : : K : L,
B : C : : M : N,
and C : D : : O : P,

the products of the similar terms are proportional (V. 22.), or ABC : BCD : : KMO : LNP. But A : D : : ABC : BCB (V. 3.), and consequently A : D : : KMO : LNP.

The same mode of reasoning is applicable to any number of component ratios.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

A duplicate ratio is the same as the ratio of the second powers of the terms of its numerical expression, and a triplicate ratio is the same as that of the third powers of those terms.

Let A : B : : B : C : : C : D; then $A^2 : B^2 :: A : C$,
and $A^3 : B^3 :: A : D$.

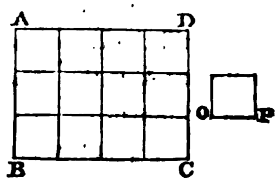
For, since A : B : : B : C,
and A : B : : A : B, the products of the corresponding terms are proportional (V. 22.), or $A^2 : B^2 ::$ BA : CB. Whence (V. 3.) $A^2 : B^2 :: A : C$.

Again, since A : B : : B : C,
and A : B : : C : D,
and A : B : : A : B, as before, (V. 22.), $A^3 : B^3 ::$ BCA : CDB. And consequently (V. 3.), $A^3 : B^3 :: A : D$.

PROP. XXV. THEOR.

The product of the numbers expressing the sides of a rectangle, will represent its quantity of surface, as measured by a square constructed on the linear unit.

Let ABCD be a rectangle and OP the linear measure; and suppose the side AB to contain OP, m times, and the side BC to contain it, n times. Divide these sides accordingly into such parts (I. 36.), and, through the points of section, draw straight lines (I. 23.) parallel to AD and DC: the whole rectangle will thus be divided into cells, each of them equal to the square of OP.



It is evident, that there stand on BC, n columns, and that each of these columns contains m cells; consequently the entire space includes, $m.n$ cells, or is equal to the square of OP repeated mn times.

Cor. 1. If $m=n$, then AB=BC, and the rectangle becomes a square; but mn is in that case equal to mm, or m^2. Whence the surface of a square is expressed by the second power of the number denoting its side.

Cor. 2. Rectangles which have the same altitude m are as their bases n and p; for (V. 3.) $mn : mp :: n : p$. And triangles having the same altitude, being (II. 5. cor.) the halves of these rectangles must likewise be as their bases.

Cor. 3. If two rectangles be equal, their respective sides are reciprocally proportional, or form the extremes and means of an analogy. For if $mn=pq$, then (V. 6.) $m : p :: q : n$.

PROP. XXVI. PROB.

Given two homogeneous quantities, to find, if possible, their greatest common measure.

Let it be required to find the greatest common measure, which two quantities A and B, of the same kind, will admit.

Supposing A to be greater than B, take B out of A, till the remainder C be less than it; again, take C out of B, till there remain only D; and continue this alternate operation, till the last divisor, suppose E, leave no remainder whatever; E is the greatest common measure of the quantities proposed.

For, the quantity sought, as it measures B, will measure its multiple; and since it also measures A, it must measure the difference between the multiple of B and A (V. 1. cor. 1.), that is, C; the required measure, therefore, measures the multiple of C, and consequently the difference of this multiple and B, which it measured,—that is D: And lastly, this measure, as it measures the multiple of D, must consequently measure the difference of this from C, or it must measure E. Supposing the decomposition to terminate here, the common measure of A and B, since it measures E, must be E itself; and it is also the greatest possible measure, for nothing greater than E can be contained in this quantity.

By retracing the steps likewise, it might be shown, that E actually measures, in succession, all the preceding terms D, C, B, and A.

If the process of decomposition should never terminate, the quantities A and B do not admit of a common mea-

sure,—or they are *incommensurable*. But, as the residue of the subdivision is necessarily diminished at each step of this operation, it is evident that some element may always be discovered, which will measure A and B nearer than any assignable limit.

PROP. XXVII. PROB.

To express by numbers, either exactly or approximately, the ratio of two given homogeneous quantities.

Let A and B be two quantities of the same kind, whose numerical ratio it is required to discover.

Find, by the last proposition, the greatest common measure E of the two quantities; and let A contain this measure K times, and B contain it L times: Then will the ratio K : L express the ratio of A : B.

For the numbers K and L severally consist of as many units, as the quantities A and B contain their measure E. It is also manifest, since E is the greatest possible divisor, that K and L are the smallest numbers capable of expressing the ratio of A to B.

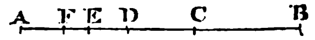
If A and B be incommensurable quantities, their decomposition is capable at least of being pushed to an unlimited extent; and, consequently, a divisor can always be found so extremely minute, as to measure them both to any degree of precision.

PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

A straight line is incommensurable with its segments formed by medial section.

If the straight line AB be cut in C, such that the rectangle AB, BC is equivalent to the square of AC; no part of AB, however small, will measure the segments AC, BC.

For (V. 26.) take AC out of AB, and again the remainder BC out of AC. But



AD, being made equal to BC, the straight line AC is likewise divided in D, by medial section (II. 19. cor. 1.); and, for the same reason, taking away the successive remainders CD, or AE, from AD, and DE or AF from AE, the subordinate lines AD and AE are also divided medially in the points E and F. This operation produces, therefore, a series of decreasing lines, all of them divided by medial section: Nor can such a process of decomposition ever terminate; for though the remainders BC, CD, DE, and EF continually diminish, they must still constitute the segments of a similar division. Consequently there exists no final quantity capable of measuring both AB and AC.

Cor. Since the square of AC is equivalent to the rectangle under AB and BC, it follows (V. 6. and V. 24.) that the whole line AB is to its smaller segment BC in the duplicate ratio of the same line to its greater segment AC; and therefore the squares of the parts of a line divided by medial section are likewise mutually incommensurable.

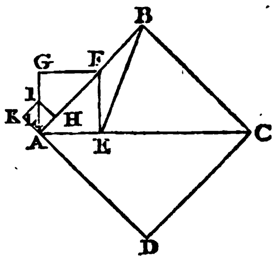
PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

The side of a square is incommensurable with its diagonal.

Let ABCD be a square and AC its diagonal; AC and AB are incommensurable.

For make CE equal to AB or BC, draw (I. 5. cor.) the perpendicular EF and join BE.

Because CE is equal to BC, the angle CEB (I. 10.) is equal to CBE; and since CEF and CBF are each right angles, the remaining angle BEF is equal to EBF, and the side EF (I. 11.) equal to BF; but EF is also equal to AE, for the angles EAF and EFA of the triangle AEF are evidently each of them half a right angle. Whence, making FH equal to the lines FB, FE or AE, the excess AE of the



diagonal AC above the side AB, is contained twice in AB, with a remainder AH; and AH again, being the excess of the diagonal AF of the derivative or secondary square GE above the side AE, must, for the same reason, be contained twice in AG, with a new remainder AL; and this remainder will likewise be contained twice with a corresponding remainder in AH, the side of the ternary square KH. This process of subdivision is therefore interminable, and continually reproduces the same mutual relations.

DEFINITIONS.

1. Straight lines drawn from the same point, are termed *diverging* lines.

2. Straight lines are divided *similarly*, when their corresponding segments have the same ratio.

3. A straight line is cut in *extreme and mean ratio*, when the one segment is the mean proportional between the other segment and the whole line.

4. A straight line is said to be cut *harmonically*, if it consist of three segments, such that the whole line is to one extreme, as the other extreme to the middle part.

5. The *area* of a figure is the quantity of space which its surface occupies.

6. *Similar* figures are such as have their angles respectively equal, and the containing sides proportional.

7. If two sides of a rectilineal figure be the extremes of an analogy, of which the means are two corresponding sides in another rectilineal figure; those figures are said to have their sides *reciprocally* proportional.

PROP. I. THEOR.

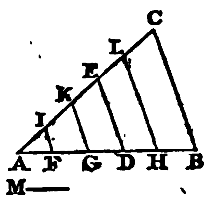
Parallels cut diverging lines proportionally.

The parallels DE and BC cut the diverging lines AB and AC into proportional segments.

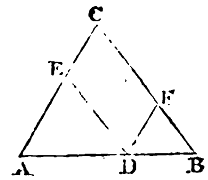
Those parallels may lie on the same side of the vertex, or on opposite sides; and they may consist of two, or of more straight lines.

1. Let the two parallels DE and BC intersect the diverging lines AB and AC, on the same side of the vertex A; then are AB and AC cut proportionally, in the points D and E, or AD : AB : : AE : AC.

For if AD be commensurable with AB, find (V. 26.) their common measure M, which repeat from the vertex A to B, and, from the corresponding points of section in AD and AB, draw (I. 23.) the parallels FI, GK, and HL. It is evident, from Book I. Prop. 36. that these parallels will also divide the straight lines AE and AC equally. Wherefore the measure M, or AF the submultiple of AD, is contained in AB, as often as AI, the like submultiple of AE, is contained in AC; consequently (V. def. 10.) the ratio of AD to AB is the same with that of AE to AC.

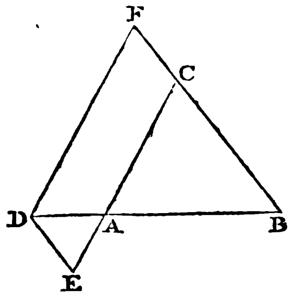


But if the segments AD and AB be incommensurable, they may still be expressed numerically, to any required degree of precision. For AD being divided (I. 36.) into equal sections, these parts, continued towards B, will, together with some residual portion, compose the whole of

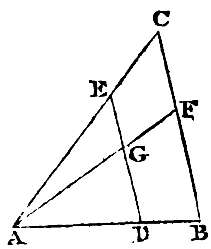


Let two diverging lines AB and AC cut the parallels BC and DE; then AB : AD : : BC : DE.

For draw DF parallel to AC. And, by the last Proposition, the parallels AC and DF must cut the straight lines AB and BC proportionally, or AB : AD : : BC : CF. But CF is equal (I. 26.) to the opposite side DE of the parallelogram DECF; and consequently AB : AD : : BC : DE.



Next, let more than two diverging lines, AB, AF and AC intersect the parallels BC and DE; the segments BF and FC have respectively to DG and GE the same ratio as AB has to AD.



From what has been already demonstrated, it appears, that AB : AD : : BF : DG, and also that AF : AG : : FC : GE. But by the last Proposition, AB : AD : : AF : AG; wherefore AB : AD : : FC : GE. The same mode of reasoning, it is obvious, might be extended to any number of sections. Whence AB : AD : : BF : DG : : FC : GE.

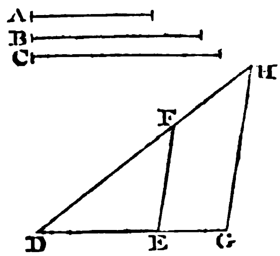
Cor. 1. Hence the straight lines which cut diverging lines equally, being parallel (VI. 1. cor. 2.), are themselves proportional to the segments intercepted from the vertex.

Cor. 2. Hence parallels are cut proportionally by diverging lines.

PROP. III. PROB.

To find a fourth proportional to three given straight lines.

Let A, B, and C be three straight lines, to which it is required to find a fourth proportional.



Draw the diverging lines DG and DH, make DE equal to A, DF to B, and DG to C, join EF, and through G draw (I. 23.) GH parallel to EF and meeting DH in H; DH is a fourth proportional to the straight lines A, B, and C.

For the diverging lines DG and DH are cut proportionally by the parallels EF and GH (VI. 1.), or DE : DF : : DG : DH, that is, A : B : : C : DH.

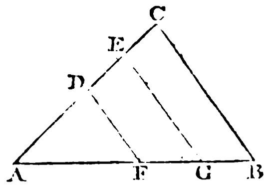
Cor. If the mean terms B and C be equal, it is obvious that DG will become equal to DF, and that DH will be found a third proportional to the two given terms A and B.

PROP. IV. PROB.

To cut a given straight line into segments, which shall be proportional to those of a divided straight line.

Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut into segments proportional to those of a given divided straight line.

From the extremity of AB, draw the diverging line AC, and make AD, DE, and EC, equal respectively to the segments of the divided line, join CB, and draw EG and DF parallel to it (I. 23.) and meeting AB in G and F; in these points AB is cut proportionally to the segments of AC.



For the parallels DF, EG, and CB must cut the diverging lines AB and AC proportionally (VI. 1.), or AF : FG : : AD : DE, and FG : GB : : DE : EC.

PROP. V. PROB.

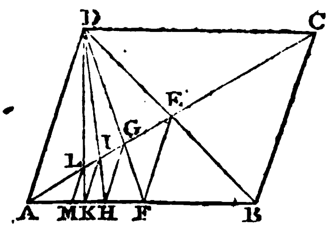
To cut off the successive parts of a given straight line.

Let AB be a straight line, from which it is required to cut off successively the half, the third, the fourth, the fifth, &c.

On AB describe (I. 23.) the rhomboid ABCD, with any contained angle, and through E, the intersection of its diagonals AC and BD, draw EF parallel to AD, join DF, and through G, where it cuts AC, draw GH likewise parallel to AD, again join DH and draw the parallel IK, and so repeat the operation: Then will AF be the half of AB, AH the third, AK the fourth, and AM the fifth part of it.

For the triangles AED and CEB are equal (I. 20.),

since they have (I. 23.) the angles DAE and ADE equal to BCE and CBE, and the interjacent sides AD and CB (I. 26.) likewise equal; and therefore DE=EB. But AD and EF being parallel, DE : EB : : AF : FB (VI. 1.); whence (V. 4.) AF=FB, or AF is the half of AB. And AD and EF being intercepted parallels, AD : EF : : AB : BF (VI. 2.); consequently, since AB is double of BF, AD is likewise double of EF (V. 5.). Again, the diverging lines AGE and DGF are proportional to the intercepted parallels AD and EF (VI. 2.), or AD : EF : : AG : GE; and GH being parallel to EF, AG : GE : : AH : HF (VI. 1.), whence AD : EF : : AH : HF; but AD was shown to be double of EF, wherefore AH is double of HF (V. 5.), or AH is two-thirds of AF, or of the half of AB, and is consequently the third part of the whole AB. Now, since AF : HF : : AD : GH, (VI. 2.) and AF is triple of HF, it is evident that AD is triple of GH; but AD : GH : : AI : IG : : AK : KH, and AD being triple of GH, AK must also be triple of KH; or AK is three-fourths of AH, which was proved to be the third of AB, whence the segment AK is the fourth part of the whole line AB. By a like process, it is shown that AM is the fifth part of AB.



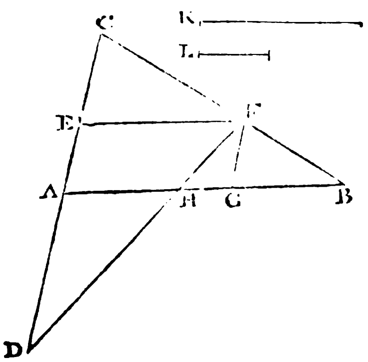
Cor. This construction likewise exhibits another series of portions of the line AB. For, since AF is the half, and AH the third, their difference FH must be the sixth part. Again, AH and AK being the third and fourth parts, the interval HK is the twelfth. In like manner, it is shown that KM is the twentieth part of AB.

PROP. VI. PROB.

To divide a straight line harmonically, and in a given ratio.

Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut harmonically, in the ratio of K to L.

Through A draw any diverging line AC, and produce it both ways till AC and AD be each equal to K, make AE equal to L, join CB, draw EF parallel to AB, and FG parallel to CA, and join DF cutting AB in H; the straight line AB is divided harmonically in the points H and G, such that K : L : : AB : BG : : AH : HG.



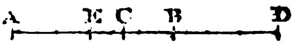
For the parallels AC and GF, being intercepted by the diverging lines AB and CB, it follows, (VI. 2.), that AC : GF : : AB : BG. Again, the diverging lines AG and DF are cut by the parallels AD and FG, whence, by the same proposition, AD or AC : GF : AH : : HG. Wherefore, AB : BG : : AH : HG; and each of these ratios is the same as that of AC or AD to GF, or that of K to L.

Cor. Hence AG is divided internally in H and externally in B, in the same ratio. In like manner, BH is divided proportionally, by an external and internal section in A and G; for AB : BG : : AH : HG, and alternately AB : AH : : BG : HG.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

If a straight line be divided internally and externally in the same ratio, half the line is a mean proportional between the distances of the middle from the two points of unequal section.

Let the straight line AB be divided in the same ratio, internally and externally at the points C and D, and also bisected at E; its half EB is a mean proportional between the distances EC and ED, or EC : EB : : EB : ED.



For since AC : CB : : AD : DB, by mixing and inversion AC—CB : AC+CB : : AD—DB : AD+DB, that is, 2EC : AB : : AB : 2ED, and, halving all the terms of the analogy, (V. 3.) EC : EB : : EB : ED.

Cor. Hence if a straight line AB be cut internally and externally at C and D, in the same ratio, the square of the interval CD between the points of section is equivalent to the difference between the rectangles AC, CB, and AD, BD, of the internal and external segments. For (II. 17.) $AD.DB=ED^2-EB^2$, and $AC.CB=EB^2-EC^2$; consequently $AD.DB-AC.CB=ED^2-2EB^2+EC^2$, or (V. 6. and VI. 7.) $ED^2-2ED.EC+EC^2$, which (II. 16.) is the square of ED—EC or of CD. The converse of this property must likewise hold.

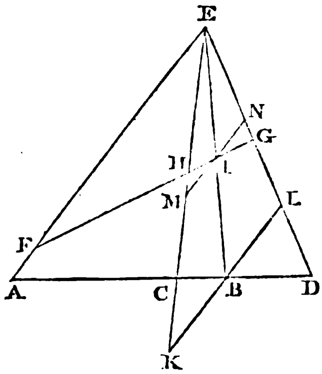
PROP. VIII. THEOR.

If diverging lines divide a straight line harmonically, they will cut every intercepted straight line also in harmonic proportion.

Let the diverging lines EA, EC, EB, and ED terminate in the harmonic section of the straight line AD; any intercepted straight line FG will be likewise cut by them harmonically, or FG : GI : : FH : HI.

For, through the points B and I, draw (I. 23.) KL and MN parallel to AE, and meeting EB and EC produced.

Because the parallels AE and BL are intercepted by the diverging lines DA and DE, AD : DB : : AE : BL (VI. 2.); and for the same reason, the parallels AE and BK being intercepted by the cross diverging lines AB and EK, AC : CB : : AE : BK. And since AD is by hypothesis divided harmonically, AD:DB::AC:CB; wherefore AE : BL : : AE : BK, and consequently (V. 8. and 4.) BL = BK. But, KL being parallel to MN, BL : BK : : IN : IM (VI. 2. cor. 2.); consequently, BL being equal to BK, IN must also be equal to IM; whence FE : IN : : FE : IM. Again, FE : IN : : FG : GI, for the parallels FE and IN are cut by the diverging lines GF and GE; and FE : IM : : FH : HI, since the parallels FE and IM are cut by the diverging lines FI and EM. Wherefore, by identity of ratios, FG : GI : : FH : HI; or the intercepted straight line FG is cut harmonically in the points H and I.



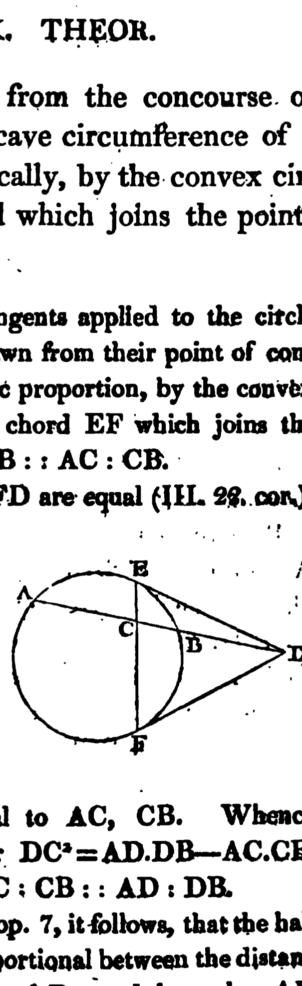
Cor. The transverse line FG would be divided likewise harmonically, if it bent from F across the extentions of EC, EB and ED above the vertex E.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the concourse of two tangents to the concave circumference of a circle, is divided harmonically, by the convex circumference and the chord which joins the points of contact.

Let ED and FD be two tangents applied to the circle AEBF; the secant DA, drawn from their point of concourse, will be cut in harmonic proportion, by the convex circumference EBF and the chord EF which joins the points of contact, or AD : DB : : AC : CB.

For the tangents ED and FD are equal (III. 22. cor.), and EDF being thus an isosceles triangle, $DE^2 = DC^2 + EC.CF$ (II. 20.); (but III. 26. cor. 2.) DE^2 is also equal to AD.DB, and the chords AB and EF, by their mutual intersection, make the rectangle EC, CF equal to AC, CB. Whence $AD.DB = DC^2 + AC.CB$, or $DC^2 = AD.DB - AC.CB$, and therefore (VI. 7. cor.) AC : CB : : AD : DB.



Cor. Hence by applying Prop. 7, it follows, that the half of the chord AB is a mean proportional between the distances of its middle point from C and D; and that, when AD passes through the centre of the circle, the square of the radius is equivalent to the rectangle under the distances of the chord and of the intersection of the tangents from the centre.

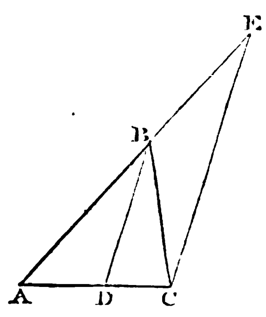
PROP. X. THEOR.

A straight line which bisects, either internally or externally, the vertical angle of a triangle, will divide its base into segments, that are proportional to the adjacent sides of the triangle.

Let the straight line BD bisect the vertical angle of the triangle ABC; it will cut the base AC into segments which have the same ratio as the adjacent sides, or AD : DC : : AB : BC.

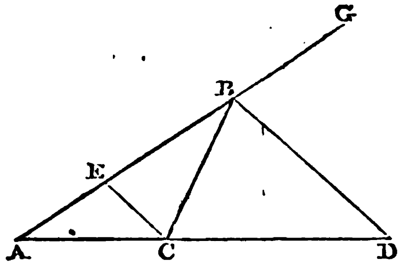
For through C draw CE parallel to DB (I. 23.), and meeting the production of AB in E.

Because DB and CE are parallel, the exterior angle ABD is equal to BEC, and the alternate angle DBC equal to BCE (I. 22.); wherefore, the angle ABD being equal by hypothesis to DBC, the angle BEC is equal to BCE, and consequently (I. 11.) the triangle CBE is isosceles, or BE is equal to BC. But the parallels DB and CE cut the diverging lines AC and AE proportionally (VI. 1.), or AD : DC : : AB : BE; that is, since BE=BC, AD : DC : : AB : BC.



Again, let the vertical line BD bisect the exterior angle CBG of the triangle; it will divide the base AC into external segments AD and DC, which are also proportional to the adjacent sides AB and BC.

For through C draw CE parallel to DB, and meeting AB in E.



The equal angles GBD and DBC are, from the properties of parallel straight lines, respectively equal to BEC and BCE, and consequently the triangle CBE is isosceles, or the side BC is equal to BE. And since the diverging lines AD and AB are cut by the parallels DB and CE proportionally, AD : DC : : AB : BE or BC.

Cor. Hence the converse of the Proposition is likewise true, or if a straight line be drawn from the vertex of a triangle to cut the base in the ratio of the adjacent sides, it will bisect the vertical angle; for it is evident, from VI. 6. cor., that a straight line is capable only of a single section, whether internal or external, in a given proportion.

Scholium. The vertical line BD must bisect the base AC of the triangle, when the sides AB and BC are equal. In the case where BD bisects the exterior angle CBG, if AB be supposed to approach to an equality with BC, the straight line EC will come nearer to AC, and consequently the incidence D of the parallel BD with AC will be thrown continually more remote. But when the side AB is equal to BC, the straight line BD, being now parallel to AC, will never meet it, or there can be no equality of external section; for though the ratio of AD to CD tends towards the ratio of equality as the point D retires, yet the

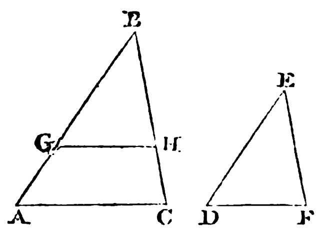
constant difference AC between those distances must always bear a sensible relation to them. After BD, in turning about the point B, has passed the limits of distance beyond C, it re-appears in an opposite direction beyond A, when AB, receding from equality, has become less than BC.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

Triangles are similar, which have their corresponding angles equal.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF have the angle CAB equal to FDE, CBA to FED, and consequently (I. 30.) the remaining angle BCA equal to EFD ; these triangles are similar, or the sides in both that contain equal angles are proportional.

For make BG equal to ED, and draw GH parallel to AC.



Because GH is parallel to AC, the exterior angle BGH is equal (I. 22.) to BAC, or to EDF; and the angle at B is, by hypothesis, equal to that at E, and the interjacent side BG was made equal to ED; wherefore (I. 20.) the triangle GBH is equal to DEF. But the diverging lines BA and BC being cut proportionally by the parallels AC and GH (VI. 1.), AB

is to BC as BG to BH, or as ED to EF. Again, those diverging lines being proportional to the intercepted segments AC and GH of the parallels (VI. 2.), AB is to BG as AC is to GH, and alternately AB is to AC as BG is to GH, or as ED to DF. In the same manner, as BC is to BH so is AC to GH, and alternately, as BC is to AC so is BH or EF to GH or DF. And thus, the sides opposite to equal angles in the triangles ABC and DEF are the homologous terms of a proportion.

Cor. Isosceles triangles are similar which have their vertical angles equal. For the supplementary angles at the base, forming (I. 30.) the same amount, must consequently be equal to each other.

Scholium. It is obvious that the twentieth Proposition of Book I. is but a particular case of this theorem.

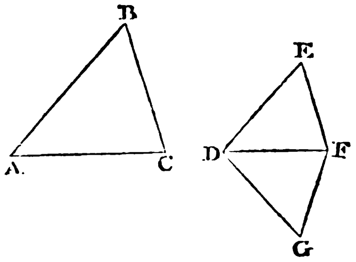
PROP. XII. THEOR.

Triangles which have the sides about two of their angles proportional are similar.

In the triangles ABC and DEF, let AB : AC : : DE : DF and BC : AC : : EF : DF; then is the angle BAC equal to EDF, and the angle BCA equal to EFD.

For (I. 4.) draw DG and FG, making angles FDG and DFG equal to CAB and ACB.

By the last Proposition, the triangle ABC is similar to DGF, and consequently AB : AC : : DG : DF; but by hypothesis, AB : AC : : DE : DF, and hence, from iden-



tity of ratios, DG : DF : : DE : DF, or DG is equal to DE. In the same manner, BC : AC : : EF:DF, and BC : AC : : GF:DF; whence EF: DF : : GF : DF, and EF is equal to FG. Wherefore the triangles DEF and DGF, having thus the sides DE and EF equal to DG and FG, and the side DF common to both, are (I. 2.) equal; consequently the angle EDF is equal to FDG or BAC, and the angle EFD is equal to DFG or BCA.

Cor. Hence isosceles triangles which have either side proportional to the base are similar.

Scholium. The second Proposition of Book I. may be considered as only a particular case of this theorem.

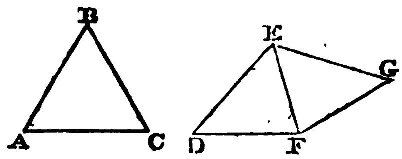
PROP. XIII. THEOR.

Triangles are similar, if each have an equal angle, and its containing sides proportional.

In the triangles BAC and EDF, let the angle ABC be equal to DEF, and the sides which contain the one be proportional to those which contain the other, or AB : : BC : : DE : EF; the triangles BAC and EDF are similar.

For, from the points E and F, draw EG and FG, making the angles FEG and EFG equal to CBA and BCA.

The triangles BAC and EGF, having thus their corresponding angles equal, are similar (VI. 11.), and therefore AB : BC : : EG : EF. But by hypothesis, AB : BC : : ED : EF; wherefore EG : EF : : ED : EF, and consequently EG is equal to ED. Hence the triangles GFE



and DFE, having the side EG equal to ED, EF common to both, and the contained angle GEF equal to ABC or DEF, are equal (I. 3.), and therefore the angle EFG or BCA is equal to EFD; consequently the remaining angles BAC and EDF of the triangles ABC and DEF are equal (I. 30.), and these triangles are (VI. 11.) similar.

Scholium. The third Proposition of Book I. is merely a particular case of this general theorem.

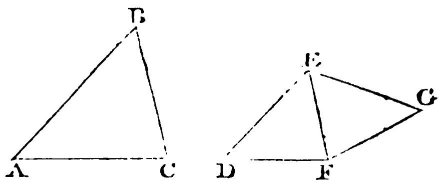
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

Triangles are similar, which have each an equal angle, and the sides containing another angle of the same character proportional.

Let the triangles CAB and FDE have the angle ABC equal to DEF, and the sides that contain the angles at C and F proportional, or BC : AC : : EF : FD; while those angles are both of them either acute or obtuse, the triangles ABC and DEF are similar.

For, from the points E and F draw EG and FG,

making the angles FEG and EFG equal to ABC and BCA.



The triangle ABC is evidently similar to GEF, and BC : CA :: EF : FG; but, by hypothesis, BC : CA :: EF : FD, and therefore EF : FG :: EF : FD, and FG is equal to FD. Whence the triangles EGF and EDF, having the angle FEG equal to FED, the side FG equal to FD, and the side EF common, and being both of the same character with CAB, are equal (I. 21.); consequently the angle GFE or ACB is equal to DFE, and therefore (VI. 11.) the triangles ABC and DEF are similar.

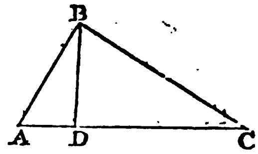
Scholium. This Theorem exhibits the general property of which Prop. 21. Book I. is only a particular case.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

A perpendicular let fall upon the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle from the opposite vertex, will divide it into two triangles that are similar to the whole and to each other.

Let the triangle ABC be right-angled at B, from which the perpendicular BD falls upon the hypotenuse AC; the triangles ABD and DBC, thus formed, are similar to each other, and to the whole triangle ACB.

For the triangles ABD and ACB, having the angle BAC common, and the right angle ADB equal to ABC,



are similar (VI. 11.) Again, the triangles DBC and ACB are similar, since they have the angle BCD common, and the right angle BDC equal to ABC. The triangles ABD and DBC being, therefore, both similar to the same triangle ABC, are evidently similar to each other (VI. 11.).

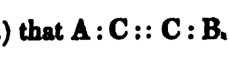
Cor. Hence any side AB of a right-angled triangle is a mean proportional between the hypotenuse AC and the adjacent segment AD, formed by a perpendicular let fall upon it from the opposite vertex; and the perpendicular BD itself is a mean proportional between those segments AD and DC of the hypotenuse. For the triangles ABC and ADB being similar, AC : AB : : AB : AD; and the triangles ABC and BDC being similar, AC : BC : : BC : CD; again, the triangles ADB and BDC are similar, and therefore AD : DB : : DB : DC.

Scholium. This corollary affords an easy demonstration of the celebrated theorem contained in Prop. 10. Book II.

PROP. XVI. PROB.

To find the mean proportional between two given straight lines.

Let it be required to find the mean proportional between the straight lines A and B.



Find C (III. 27.) the side of a square which is equivalent to the rectangle contained by A and B; C is the mean proportional required.

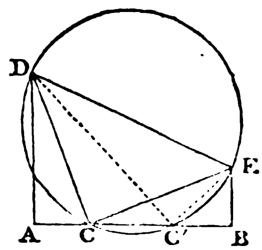
For since $C^2 = AB$, it follows (V. 6.) that A : C :: C : B.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

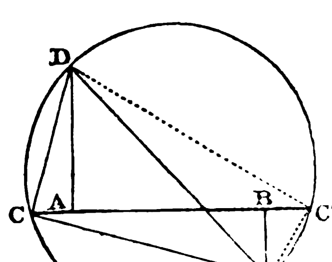
To divide a straight line, whether internally or externally, so that the rectangle under its segments shall be equivalent to a given rectangle.

Let AB be the straight line which it is required to cut, so that the rectangle under its segments shall be equivalent to a given rectangle.

From the extremities of AB, erect the perpendiculars AD and BE, equal to the sides of the given rectangle, and in the same or in opposite directions, according as the line is to be cut internally or externally; join DE, on which, as a diameter, describe a circle meeting AB or its extension in the point C: AC and CB are the segments required.



For join DC and CE. The angle DCE, being contained in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 19.), and therefore, in both cases, the angles ACD and BCE are together equal to a right angle. But the angles ACD and CDA are likewise together equal to a right angle (I. 30. cor. 1.); and consequent-



ly the angles BCE and CDA are equal. Wherefore the right-angled triangles CBE and CAD, having the acute angle ADC equal to BCE, are similar (VI. 11.); whence AC : AD : : BE : CB, and (V. 6.) AC.CB=AD.BE.

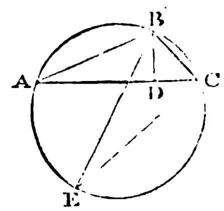
Scholium. It is obvious that, in the second case, the circle, lying on both sides of the given line AB, must always intersect its extension in two points C and C′. But, in the first case, the circle may either cut AB in two points C and C′, or touch it in a single point, which will hence indicate a limitation of the problem. A straight line drawn from the centre of the circle parallel to AD or BE, must (VI. 1.) divide AB proportionally, and therefore bisect it; but that parallel would also be perpendicular (I. 22.) to AB, and thence (III. 4.) bisect the chord CC′. Consequently the points C and C′ are equally distant from the middle of AB, and the portion AC is equal to BC′. When these points come to coincide, they must necessarily pass into the middle point of AB, or into that of its contact with the circle. When the circle does not reach AB, the problem fails, because (II. 17. cor. 1.) no straight line can be divided internally, such that the rectangle under the segments shall exceed the square of its half. Such impossibility is intimated by the circle not reaching the straight line AB.

This proposition furnishes one of the simplest and most elegant methods for constructing quadratic equations; the segments of the line denoting the roots, and indicating by position their distinct character. The first case has two additive roots, which may become equal or merge in a single root, thus limiting the possibility of the equation; the second case has always two unequal roots, the one additive and the other subtractive. In both cases, those roots, conjoined in their actual position, complete the line AB.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

The rectangle under any two sides of a triangle is equivalent to the rectangle under the perpendicular let fall on the base and the diameter of the circumscribing circle.

Let ABC be a triangle, about which is described a circle having the diameter BE; the rectangle under the sides AB and BC is equivalent to the rectangle under BE and the perpendicular BD let fall from the vertex of the triangle upon the base AC.



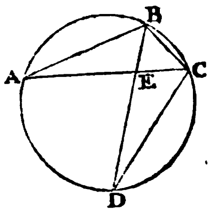
For join CE. The angle BAD is equal to BEC (III. 16.), since they both stand upon the same arc BC, and the angle ADB, being a right angle, is (III. 19.) equal to ECB, which is contained in a semicircle. Wherefore the triangles ABD and EBC, being thus similar (VI. 11.), AB : BD : : EB : BC, and consequently (V. 6.) AB.BC=EB.BD.

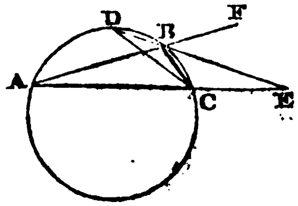
PROP. XIX. THEOR.

The square of a straight line that bisects, whether internally or externally, the vertical angle of a triangle, is equivalent to the difference between the rectangle under the sides, and the rectangle under the segments into which it divides the base.

In the triangle ABC, let BE bisect the vertical angle CBA or its adjacent angle CBF; then $BE^2 = AB.BC - AE.EC$, or $AE.EC - AB.BC$.

For (III. 9. cor.) about the triangle describe a circle, produce BE to the circumference, and join CD.





The angles BAE and BDC, standing upon the same arc BC, are (III. 16.) equal, and the angle ABE is, by hypothesis, equal to DBC; wherefore (VI. 11.) the triangles AEB and DCB are similar, and AB : BE : : DB : BC. Consequently (V 6.) $AB.BC = BE.BD$: but in the two cases $BE.BD = BE.ED + BE^2$ or $BE.ED - BE^2$; and since (III. 26.) $BE.ED = AE.EC$, therefore $AB.BC = AE.EC + BE^2$, or $AE.EC - BE^2$; consequently $BE^2 = AB.BC - AE.EC$, or $AE.EC - AB.BC$.

Scholium. The two lines which bisect the vertical angle both internally and externally will form the sides and the interval between the points of section in the base, AC will constitute the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle; whence the corollary to Prop. 7. may be easily derived.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

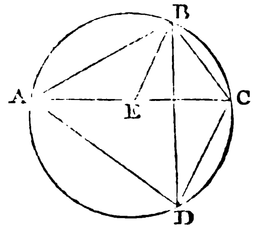
The rectangles under the opposite sides of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle, are together equivalent to the rectangle under its diagonals.

In the circle ABCD, let a quadrilateral figure be inscribed, and join the diagonals AC, BD; the rectangles

AB, CD and BC, AD, are together equivalent to the rec-angle AC, BD.

For (I. 4.) draw BE, making an angle ABE equal to CBD.

The triangles AEB and DCB, having thus the angle ABE equal to DBC, and the angle BAE or BAC equal (III. 16.) to BDC in the same segment of the circle, are similar (VI. 11.), and hence AB : AE : : BD : CD; whence (V. 6.) AB.CD = AE.BD. Again, because the angle ABE is equal to DBC, add EBD to each, and the whole angle ABD is equal to EBC; and the angle ADB is equal to ECB in the same segment, (III. 16.); wherefore the triangles DAB and CEB are similar (VI. 11.), and AD : BD : : EC : BC, and consequently BC.AD = EC.BD. Whence collectively the rectangles AB, CD and BC, AD are together equal to the rectangles AE, BD and EC, BD, that is, to the whole rectangle AC, BD.

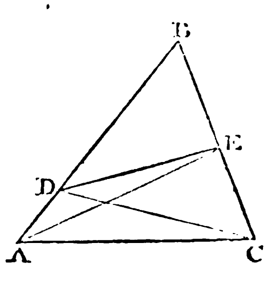


PROP. XXI. THEOR.

Triangles which have a common angle, are to each other in the compound ratio of the containing sides.

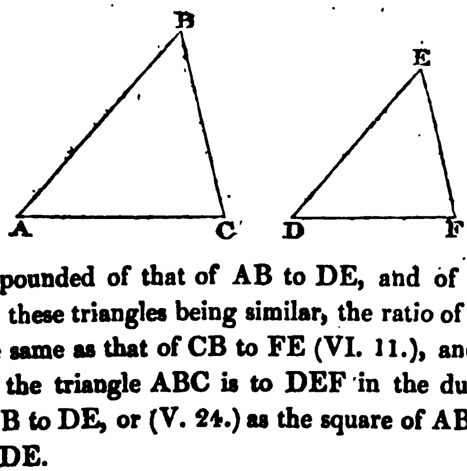
Let ABC and DBE be two triangles, having the same or an equal angle at B; ABC is to DBE in the ratio compounded of that of BA to BD, and of BC to BE.

For join AE and CD. The ratio of the triangle ABC to DBE may be conceived as compounded of that of ABC to



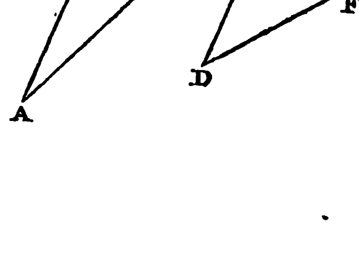
DBC, and of DBC to DBE. But (V. 25. cor. 2.) the triangle ABC is to DBC, as the base BA to BD; and, for the same reason, the triangle DBC is to DBE, as the base BC to BE; consequently the triangle ABC is to DBE in the ratio compounded of that of BA to BD, and of BC to BE, or (V. 23.) in the ratio of the rectangle under BA and BC to the rectangle under BD and BE.

Cor. 1. Hence similar triangles are in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides. For, if the angle at B be equal to that at E, the triangle ABC is to DEF in the



ratio compounded of that of AB to DE, and of CB to FE; but, these triangles being similar, the ratio of AB to DE is the same as that of CB to FE (VI. 11.), and consequently the triangle ABC is to DEF in the duplicate ratio of AB to DE, or (V. 24.) as the square of AB to the square of DE.

Cor. 2. Hence triangles which have the sides that contain an equal angle reciprocally proportional, are equivalent. For, the angle at B being equal to that at E, the triangle ABC is to DEF as AB.CB to DE.FE; but AB : DE : : FE : CB, and AB.CB=DE.FE;



consequently (V. 4.), the third and fourth terms of the analogy being equal, the first and second must also be equal.

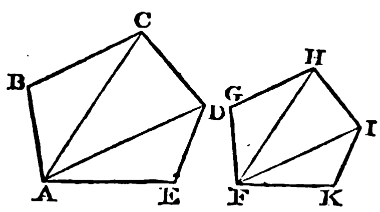
PROP. XXII. THEOR.

Similar rectilineal figures may be divided into corresponding similar triangles.

Let ABCDE and FGHIK be similar rectilineal figures, of which A and F are corresponding points; these figures may be resolved into a like number of triangles which are respectively similar.

For, from the point A in the one figure, draw the straight lines AC, AD, and, from F in the other, draw FH, FI; the triangles BAC, CAD, and DAE are similar in succession to GFH, HFI, and IFK.

Because the polygon ABCDE is similar to FGHIK, the angle ABC is equal to FGH, and AB : BC :: FG : GH; wherefore (VI. 13.) the triangle BAC is similar to GFH. Hence the angle



BCA is equal to GHF; and the whole angle BCD being equal to GHI, the remaining angle ACD must be equal to FHI. But BC : AC : : GH : FH, and BC : CD : : GH : HI, consequently (V. 15.) AC : CD : : FH : HI, and the triangles CAD and HFI (VI. 13.) are similar. Whence, the angle CDA being equal to HIF and the

angle CDE to HIK, the angle ADE is equal to FIK; and since CD : DA :: HI : IF, and CD : DE : : HI : IK, therefore (V. 15.) DA : DE : : IF : IK, and the triangles DAE and IFK are similar.

The same train of reasoning, it is obvious, would apply to polygons of any number of sides.

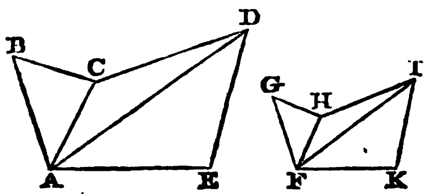
PROP. XXIII. PROB.

On a given straight line, to construct a rectilineal figure similar to a given rectilineal figure.

Let FK be a straight line, on which it is required to construct a rectilineal figure similar to the figure ABCDE.

Join AC and AD, dividing the given rectilineal figure into its component triangles. From the points F and K draw FI and KI, making the angles KFI and FKI equal to EAD and AED; from F and I draw FH and IH making the angles IFH and FIH equal to DAC and ADC; and, lastly, from F and H draw FG and HG making the angles HFG and FHG equal to CAB and ACB. The figure FGHIK is similar to ABCDE.

For the several triangles KFI, IFH, and HFG, which compose the figure FGHIK, are, by the construction, evidently similar to the triangles EAD, DAC, and CAB, in-



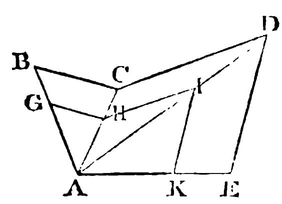
to which the figure ABCDE was resolved. Whence FK : KI : : AE : ED; also KI : IF : : ED : DA, and

IF : IH : : DA : DC, and consequently (V. 16.) KI : IH : : ED : DC. Again, IH : HF : : DC : CA, and HF : HG : : CA : CB; and hence (V. 16.) IH : HG : : DC : CB. But HG : GF : : CB : BA; and the ratio of GF to FK, being compounded of that of GF to FH, of FH to FI, and of FI to FK, is the same with the ratio of BA to AE, which is compounded of the like ratios of BA to AC, of AC to AD, and AD to AE. Wherefore all the sides about the figure FGHIK are proportional to those about ABCDE; but the several angles of the former, having a like composition, are respectively equal to those of the latter. Whence the figure FGHIK is similar to the given figure.

The same reasoning, it is manifest, would extend to polygons of any number of sides.

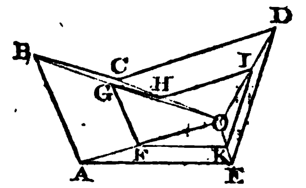
Scholium. The general solution of this problem is derived from the principle, that similar triangles, by their composition, form similar polygons. The mode of construction, however, admits of some variation. For instance, if the straight line FK be parallel to AE, or in the same extension with that homologous side, the several triangles FIK, FHI, and FGH may be more easily constituted in succession, by drawing the straight lines FI and KI, FH and IH, and FG and GH parallel to the corresponding sides in the original figure ABCDE; because (I. 29.) a corresponding equality of angles will be thus produced.

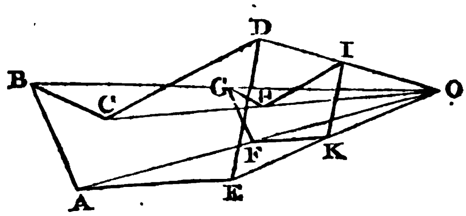
But, if FK have no determinate position, the construction may be still farther simplified; for, having made AK equal to that base and joined AD and AC, draw KI, IH, and HG parallel to ED, DC, and CB. The figure AKIHG is evidently similar to AEDCB,



since its component triangles have the same vertical angles as those of the original figure, and the angles at the bases equal (I. 22.).

If the given base FK be parallel to the corresponding side AE of the original figure, a more general construction will result. Join AF, EK, and produce them to meet in O; join OB, OC, and OD, and draw FG, GH, HI, and therefore IK, parallel to AB, BC, CD, and DE: The figure FGHIK thus formed is similar to ABCDE. For the triangles KOF, FOG, GOH, HOI, and IOK are evidently similar to the triangles EOA, ACB, BOC, COD, and DOE. But these triangles compose severally





the two polygons, when the point O lies within the original figure; and when that point of concurrence lies without the figure ABCDE, the similar triangles IOK and DOE being taken away from the similar compound polygons FGHIOK and ABCDOE, there remains the figure FGHIK similar to the original one.

It farther appears, from these investigations, that a rectilineal figure may have its sides reduced or enlarged in a

given ratio, by assuming any point O and cutting the diverging lines OE, OA, OB, OC, and OD in that ratio; the corresponding points of section being joined, will exhibit the figure required.

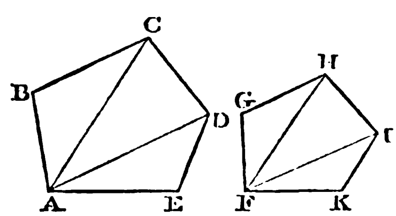
On these principles depends the composition of the *Pantagraph*, a very useful instrument in Practical Geometry, for enlarging, reducing, or copying figures.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

Of similar figures, the perimeters are proportional to the corresponding sides, and the areas, to their squares.

Let ABCDE and FGHIK be similar polygons, which have the corresponding sides AB and FG; the perimeter, or linear boundary, ABCDE is to the perimeter FGHIK, as AB to FG, BC to GH, CD to HI, DE to IK, or EA to KF; but the area of ABCDE, or the contained surface, is to the area of FGHIK, in the duplicate ratio of those homologous terms, or of AB to FG, of BC to GH, of CD to HI, of DE to IK, or of EA to KF.

For, by drawing the diagonals AC, AD in the one, and FH, FI in the other, these polygons will be resolved into similar triangles. Whence the several analogies AB:BC::FG:GH, BC:AC::GH:FH,



AC : CD : : FH : HI, CD : AD : : HI : FI, and AD : DE : : FI : IK; wherefore, by equality and alternation, AB : FG : : BC : GH : : CD : HI : : DE : IK : :

AE : FK, and consequently (V. 19.) as one of the antecedents AB, BC, CD, DE or AE, is to its consequent FG, GH, HI, IK or FK, so is the amount of all those antecedents, or the perimeter ABCDE, to the amount of all the consequents, or the perimeter FGHIK.

Again, the triangle CAB is to the triangle HFG (VI. 21. cor. 1.) in the duplicate ratio of AB to FG, the triangle DAC is to the triangle IFH in the duplicate ratio of AC to FH, or of AB to FG, and the triangle EAD is to KFI in the duplicate ratio of AD to FI or of AB to FG; wherefore (V. 19.) the aggregate of the triangles CAB, DAC, and EAD, or the area of the polygon ABCDE, is to the aggregate of the triangles HFG, IFH, and KFI, or the area of the polygon FGHIK, in the duplicate ratio of AB to FG, of BC to GH, of CD to HI, or of DE to IK.

Cor. Hence also the perimeter ABCDE is to the perimeter FGHIK, as any diagonal AD to the corresponding diagonal FI, and the area ABCDE is to the area FGHIK in the duplicate ratio of AD to FI.

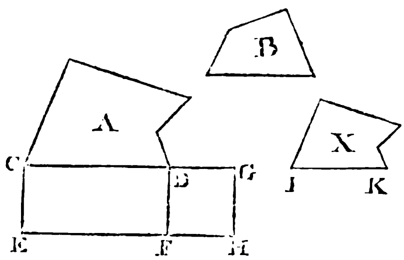
PROP. XXV. PROB.

To construct a rectilineal figure that shall be similar to one, and equivalent to another, given rectilineal figure.

Let it be required to describe a rectilineal figure similar to A, and equivalent to B.

On CD, a side of A, describe (II. 8.) the rectangle CDFE, equivalent to that figure, and on DF describe the

rectangle DGHF equivalent to the figure B; find (VI. 16.) IK a mean proportional between CD and DG, and on IK construct, in the same position, a figure X similar to the rectilineal figure A; this will be likewise equivalent to B.



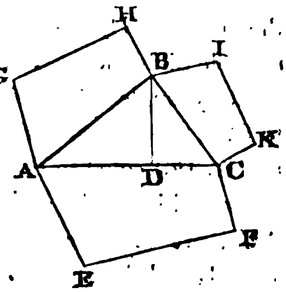
For the figures A and X, being similar, must (VI. 24.) be in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides CD and IK; and since IK is a mean proportional between CD and DG, the duplicate ratio of CD to IK is the same as the ratio of CD to DG (V. 24.); consequently the figure A is to the figure X as CD to DG, or (V. 25. cor. 2.) as the rectangle CF to the rectangle DH; but the figure A is equivalent to the rectangle CF, and therefore (V. 4.) the figure X is equivalent to the rectangle DH, that is, to the figure B.

PROP. XXVI. THEOR.

A rectilineal figure described on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, is equivalent to similar figures described on the two sides.

Let ABC be a right-angled triangle; the figure ACFE described on the hypotenuse is equivalent to the similar figures AGHB and BIKC, described on the sides AB and BC.

For draw BD perpendicular to the hypotenuse. And since (VI. 15. cor. 1.) AC : AB : : AB : AD, therefore AC is to AD in the duplicate ratio of AC to AB, that is, (VI. 24.), as the figure on AC to the figure on AB. For the same reason, AC is to CD in the duplicate ratio of AC to BC, or as the figure on AC to the figure on BC.



Whence (V. 19. cor. 2.) AC is to the two segments AD and CD taken together, as the figure on AC to both the figures on AB and BC; and the first term of the analogy being thus equal to the second, the third must be equal to the fourth (V. 4.), or the figure described on the hypotenuse is equivalent to the similar figures described on the two sides.

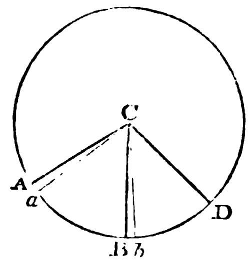
PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

The arcs of a circle are proportional to the angles which they subtend at the centre.

Let the radii CA, CB, and CD intercept arcs AB and BD; the arc AB is to BD, as the angle ACB to BCD.

For (I. 5.) bisect the angle ACB, bisect again each of its halves, and continue the operation indefinitely. An angle AC*a* will be thus obtained which is less than any assignable angle. Let this angle AC*a* or BC*b* (I. 4.) be repeatedly

applied about the point C, from BC towards DC; it must hence, by its multiplication, fill up the angle BCD, nearer than any possible difference. But the elementary angle ACa being equal to BCb, the corresponding arc Aa is (III. 12.) equal to Bb. Consequently this arc Aa and its angle ACa, are like measures of the arc AB and the angle ACB, and they are both contained equally in the arc BD and its corresponding angle BCD. Wherefore AB : BD : : ACB : BCD.



Cor. Hence the arc AB is also to BD, as the sector ACB to the sector BCD; for these sectors may be viewed as composed alike of the elementary sector ACa.

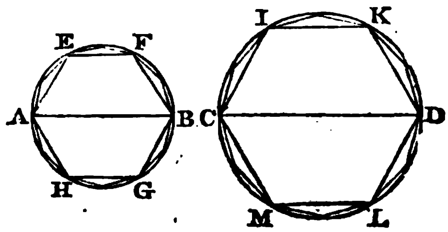
PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

The circumference of a circle is proportional to the diameter, and its area to the square of that diameter.

Let AB and CD be the diameters of two circles; the circumference AFG is to the circumference CKL, as AB to CD; and the area contained by AFG is to the area contained by CKL, as the square of AB to the square of CD.

For inscribe the regular hexagons AEFBGH and CIKDLM. Because these polygons are equilateral and equiangular, they are similar; and consequently (VI. 24.

cor.) the diagonal AB is to the corresponding diagonal CD, as the perimeter AEFBGH to the perimeter CIKDLM. But this proportion must subsist, whatever be the number of chords inscribed in either circumference. Insert a dodecagon in each circle between the hexagon and the circumference, and its perimeter will evidently ap-

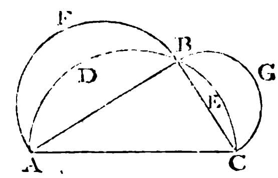


proach nearer to the length of that circumference. Proceeding thus, by repeated duplications,—the perimeters of the series of polygons that arise in succession, will continually approximate to the curvilineal boundary, which forms their ultimate limit. Wherefore this extreme term, or the circumference AEFBGH, is to the circumference CIKDLM, as the diameter AB to the diameter CD.

Again, the hexagon AEFBGH (VI. 24. cor.) is to the hexagon CIKDLM in the duplicate ratio of the diagonal AB to the corresponding diagonal CD, or (V. 24.) as the square of AB to the square of CD. Wherefore the successive polygons which arise from a repeated bisection of the intermediate arcs, and which approach continually to the areas of their containing circles, must have still that same ratio. Consequently the limiting space, or the circle AEFBGH, is to the circle CIKDLM, as the square of AB to the square of CD.

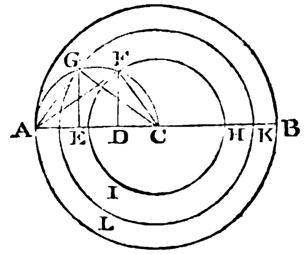
Cor. 1. It hence follows, that if semicircles be described

on the sides AB, BC of a right-angled triangle, and on the hypotenuse AC another semicircle be described, passing (III. 19.) through the vertex B, the crescents AFBD and BGCE are together equivalent to the triangle ABC. For, by the Proposition, the square of AC is to the square of AB, as the circle on AC to the circle on AB, or (V. 3.) as the semicircle ADBEC to the semicircle AFB; and, for the same reason, the square of AC is to the square of BC, as the semicircle ADBEC to the semicircle BGC. Whence (V. 8. and 19.) the square of AC is to the squares of AB and BC, as the semicircle ADBEC to the semicircles AFB and BGC. But



(II. 10.) the square of AC is equivalent to the squares of AB and BC, and therefore (V. 4.) the semicircle ADBEC is equivalent to the two semicircles AFB and BGC; take away the common segments ADB and BEC, and there remains the triangle ABC equivalent to the two crescents or *lunes* AFBD and BGCE.

Cor. 2. Hence the method of dividing a circle into equal portions, by means of concentric circles. Let it be required, for instance, to trisect the circle of which AB is a diameter. Divide the radius AC into three equal parts, from the points of section draw perpendiculars DF, EG meeting the circumference of a semicircle described on AC, join CF, CG, and from C as a centre, with the distances CF, CG, de-



scribe the circles FHI, GKL: The circle on AB will be divided into three equal portions, by those interior circles. For join AF and AG: Because AFC, being in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 19.), AC is to CD (VI. 15. cor. 1. and V. 24.), as the square of AC to the square of CF, that is, as the circle on AB to the circle FHI; but CD is the third part of AC; wherefore (V. 5.) the circle FHI is the third part of the circle on AB. In like manner, it is proved, that the circle GKL is two third-parts of the circle on AB. Consequently, the intervening annular spaces, and the internal circle FHI, are all equal.

Cor. 3. Hence, as in Prop. 25. Book III., if four circles be described on the segments AE, EB, EC and ED of two mutual perpendiculars drawn to meet the circumference of a circle, those intermediate circles will be together equivalent to the large circle.

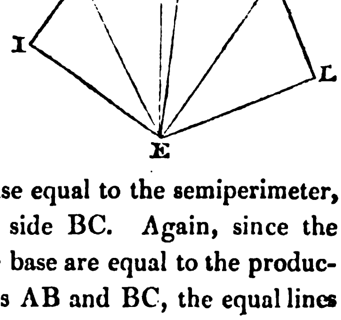
PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

The area of any triangle is a mean proportional between the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, and the rectangle under the separate excesses of that semiperimeter above the two remaining sides.

The area of the triangle ABC is a mean proportional between the rectangle under half the sum of all the sides and its excess above AC, and the rectangle under the excess of that semiperimeter above AB and its excess above BC.

For produce the sides BA and BC, draw the straight lines BE, AD, and AE bisecting the angles CBA, BAC, and CAI, join CD and CE, and let fall the perpendiculars DF, DG, and DH within the triangle, and the perpendiculars EI, EK, and EL without it.

The triangles ADF and ADG, having by construction the angle DAF equal to DAG, the angles F and G right angles, and the common side AD, are (I. 20.) equal; for the same reason, the triangles BDG and BDH are equal. In like manner, it is proved, that the triangles AEI and AEK are equal, and also the triangles BEI and BEL. Whence the triangles CDH and CDF, having the side DH equal to DF, the side DC common, and the right angle CHD equal to CFD, are (I. 21.) equal; and, for the same reason, the triangles CEK and CEL are equal. Wherefore the segments AF, FC and BG are respectively equal to AG, CH and BH, and compose with them the whole sides of the triangle ABC. Consequently the segments AF, FC and BG, or AC and BG, is equal to the semiperimeter, and BG is thus its excess above the base. But the segments BH, HC and AG,



or BC and AG, being likewise equal to the semiperimeter, AG is its excess above the side BC. Again, since the segments AK and CK of the base are equal to the productions AI and CL of the sides AB and BC, the equal lines

BI and BL are together equal to the whole perimeter of the triangle, or each of them is equal to the semiperimeter, and AI is its excess above the side AB.

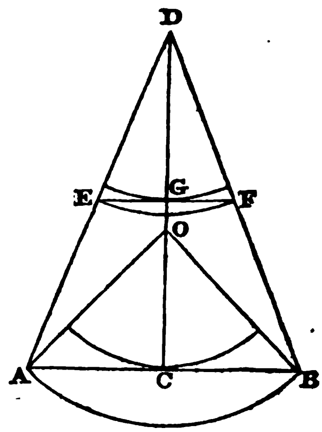
Now, because DG and EI, being perpendicular to BI, are parallel, BG : DG : : BI : EI (VI. 2.), and consequently (V. 25. cor. 2.) BI. combining with the two first terms of the analogy, and DG with the two last, $BI \times BG : BI \times DG : : DG \times BI : DG \times EI$. But since AD and AE bisect the angle BAC and its adjacent angle CAI, the angles GAD and EAI are together equal to a right angle, and equal, therefore, to IEA and EAI; whence the angle GAD is equal to IEA, and the right-angled triangles DGA and AIE are similar. Wherefore (VI. 11.) DG : AG : : AI : EI and (V. 6.) $DG \times EI = AG \times AI$; consequently $BI \times BG : DG \times BI : : DG \times BI : AG \times AI$. But the triangle ABC is composed of three triangles ADB, BDC, and CDA, which have the same altitude; and therefore its area is equal to the rectangle under the common perpendicular DG and half their bases AB, BC, and AC, or the semiperimeter BI. Whence the area of the triangle ABC is a mean proportional between the rectangle under BI and its excess above AC, and the rectangle under its excess above BC and that above AB.

Cor. Hence the area of a triangle will be expressed numerically, by the square root of the continued product of the semiperimeter into its several excesses above the three sides.

PROP. XXX. PROB.

To convert a given regular polygon into another, which shall have the same perimeter, but double the number of sides.

It is evident that a regular polygon, by drawing lines from the centre of the inscribed or circumscribing circle to all the corners, may be divided into as many equal and isosceles triangles as it has sides. Let AOB be such a sector of the given polygon; from the centre O let fall the perpendicular OC, and produce it to D, till OD be equal to OA or OB, and join AD and BD. The isosceles triangle ADB is therefore (IV. 1.) constructed on the same base with AOB, and has only half the vertical angle. Consequently twice as many of such angles could be constituted about D, as were placed about O. Bisect AD and BD in E and F, and the straight line joining these points must (VI. 2.) be equal to half the base AB. Wherefore the triangle EDF, repeated about the vertex D, would form a regular polygon with twice as many sides as before, but under the same extent of perimeter, since each of those sides EF has only half the former length ACB.



Cor. 1. Hence DG, the radius of the circle which would inscribe the derived polygon, is half of CD, that is, half of the sum of OC and OA, the radii of the circles inscribing and circumscribing the given polygon. Again, since AOD is evidently isosceles, $AD^2 = 2OA.CD$ (II. 23. cor.), or $DE^2 = OA.\frac{1}{2}CD$, and consequently DE the radius of the circumscribing derived polygon is a mean proportional between OA and DG, the radius of the circle circum-

scribing the given polygon, and the radius of the circle inscribing the derived polygon.

Cor. 2. Hence the area of a circle is equivalent to the rectangle under its radius, and a straight line equal to half its circumference. For the surface of any regular circumscribing polygon, being composed of triangles such as EDF, which have all the same altitude DG, is equivalent (II. 5.) to the rectangle under DG, and half the sum of their bases, or the semiperimeter of the polygon. Therefore the circle itself, since it forms the ultimate limit of the polygon, must have its area equivalent to the rectangle under the radius or the limit of all the successive altitudes and the semicircumference, which limits also the corresponding semiperimeters.

Scholium. From this proposition is derived a very simple and elegant method of approximating to the numerical expression for the area of a circle. Let the original polygon be a square, each side of which is denoted by unit; the component sector AOB is therefore a right-angled isosceles triangle, having the perpendicular OC, or the radius of the inscribed circle, equal to .5, and the radius OA of the circumscribing circle equal to $\sqrt{.5}$ or .7071067812. But DG, the radius of a circle inscribed in an octagon of the same perimeter, is $= \frac{OA+OC}{2} = \frac{.5+.707106812}{2} =$ .6035533906; and DE the radius of the circle circumscribing that octagon, is $= \sqrt{(OA.DG)} = \sqrt{(.603533906 \times .707106812)} = .6532814824$. Again, the radius of the circle inscribed in a polygon of 16 sides with the same perimeter, is $= \frac{.6035533906+.6532814824}{2} = .62844174365$; and the radius of the circle circumscribing that polygon, is $= \sqrt{(.6284174365 \times .6532814824)} = .6407288619$. In

like manner, the radii of circles inscribing and circumscribing the polygons of 32, 64, 128, &c. sides, under the same perimeter, are successively found, by an alternate series of arithmetical and geometrical means.

It may be observed, that these radii mutually approximate about four times nearer at each step: For, (II. 10.) $CA^2=OA^2-OC^2=$ (II. 17.) $(OA-OC)(OA+OC)$; and, for the same reason, $GE^2=DE^2-DG^2=(DE-DG)(DE+DG)$. But, CA being double of GE, and $CA^2=4GE^2$, it is evident that $(OA-OC)(OA+OC)=4(DE-DG)(DE+DG)$; and since the successive radii must approach on both sides to form the same amount, or $OA+OC=DE+DG$ nearly, it follows that $OA-OC=4(DE-DG)$ nearly. In the subjoined table, where the computation is carried to ten decimal places, this rate of mutual approximation will be found true to the last figure, in the expressions for the radii of the circles attached to all the polygons beyond that of 256 sides. Thus, for the polygon of 512 sides, $\frac{.6366237671-.6366117828}{4}=.0000029960$, which is the difference between .6366207710 and .6366177750, the radii of the circles described about and within the polygon of 1024 sides.

After five or six terms have been computed, the rest may be found by a simple process, because the mean proportional between two proximate lines is very nearly equal to half their sum, or the arithmetical mean. While each number in the first column, therefore, is always equal to half the sum of the preceding terms in both columns, the corresponding number in the second column may be considered as equal to half the sum of that number and of the term immediately above itself. Thus, .6366207710,

the radius of the circle circumscribing the polygon of 1024 sides, is equal to half the sum of .6366177750, the radius of its inscribed circle, and of .6366237671, the radius of the circle circumscribing the polygon of 512 sides.

But the final term may be discovered still more expeditiously; for, since the numbers in both columns are formed by taking successive means, those of the second column must each time be diminished by the fourth part of the common difference, and consequently (V. 21.) the continued diminution will accumulate to one-third of that difference. Wherefore the ultimate radius of the inscribed and circumscribing circles is the third-part of the sum of a radius of inscription and of double the corresponding radius of circumscription. Thus, stopping at the polygon of 256 sides, $\frac{.6366587814 1+2(.6366357516)}{3}=.6366197724$, the final result.

NO. of sides of the Polygon.	Radius of Inscribed Circle.	Radius of Circumscribing Circle.
4	.5000000000	.7071067812
8	·6035533906	.6532814824
16	.6284174365	.6407288619
32	.6345731492	.6376435773
64	.6361083633	6368755077
128	.6364919355	.6366836927
256	.6365878141	.6366357516
512	.6366117828	.6366237671
1024	.6366177750	.6366207710
2048	.6366192730	.6366200220
4096	.6366196475	.6366198348
8192	.6366197411	.6366197880
16384	.6366197645	.6366197763
32768	.6366197704	.6366197733
65536	.6366197719	.6366197726
131072	.6366197722	.6366197724
262144	.6366197723	.6366197724

Hence the radius of a circle, whose circumference is 4, or the diameter of a circle whose circumference is 2, will be denoted by .6366197724; wherefore, reciprocally, the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 1, will be expressed by 3.1415926536, and its area, or that of the ultimate polygon, by .7853981434.

In most cases, however, it will be sufficiently accurate to retain only the first four figures. Wherefore 3.1416, multiplied into the diameter of a circle, will denote its circumference, and .7854, multiplied into the square of the diameter, will give the numerical expression for its area.

APPENDIX.

The constructions used in Elementary Geometry, were effected by a combination of straight lines and circles. Many problems, however, can be resolved, by the single application of the straight line or of the circle; and such solutions are not only interesting, from the ingenuity and resources which they display, but may, in a variety of practical instances, be employed with manifest advantage. This Appendix is intended to exhibit a selection of Geometrical Problems, resolved by either of those methods separately. It is accordingly divided into Two Parts, corresponding to the rectilineal and the circular constructions. The first is useful in Castrametation, and the second can be employed especially in delineating the plans of Fortifications.

PART I.

Problems resolved by help of the Ruler, or by Straight Lines only.

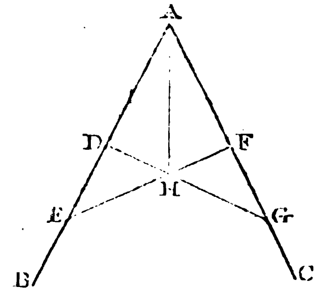
PROP. I. PROB.

To bisect a given angle.

Let BAC be an angle, which it is required to bisect, by drawing only straight lines.

In AB take any two points D and E, from AC cut off AF equal to AD and AG to AE, draw EF and DG, crossing in the point H : AH will bisect the angle BAC.

For the triangles EAF and DAG, having the sides EA and AF equal by construction to GA and AD, and the contained angle DAG common to both, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle AEF is equal to AGD. And since AE is equal to AG, and the part AD to AE, the remainder DE must be equal to FG; wherefore the



triangles DEH and HGF, having the angle at E equal to that at G, the vertical angles at H equal, and also their opposite sides DE and FG, are equal (I. 20.); and hence the side DH is equal to FH. Again, the sides AD and DH

are equal to AF and FH, and AH is common to the two triangles AHD and AHF, which are therefore equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle DAH is equal to FAH.

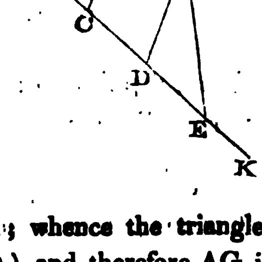
In the field, this problem is readily performed by means of strings and pegs.

PROP. II. PROB.

To bisect a given finite straight line.

Let it be required to bisect AB, by a rectilineal construction.

Draw AK diverging from AB, and make AC=CD=DE, join EB, and continue it beyond B till BF be equal to BE, and lastly join FC; which will bisect AB in the point G.



For draw BH parallel to AE. And because BD evidently bisects the sides EC and EF of the triangle CEF, it is parallel to the base CF (VI. 1. cor. 2.); wherefore BDCH is a parallelogram, which has (I. 26.) its opposite sides BH and CD equal. But AC being parallel to BH, the angles GAC and GCA are equal to GBH and GHB, and the side AC, being made equal to CD, is hence equal to its corresponding interjacent side BH; whence the triangles AGC and BGH are equal (I. 20.), and therefore AG is equal to BG.

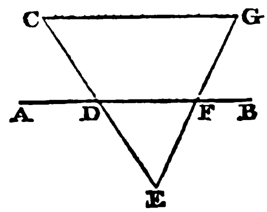
This construction is evidently much longer than the ordinary process, but then it requires not the application of compasses.

PROP. III. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a line parallel to a given straight line.

Let it be required, by a rectilineal construction, to draw through C a straight line parallel to AB.

In AB take any two points D and F, join CD, which produce till DE be equal to it; again join E with the point F, and continue this till FG be equal to EF: Then CG, being joined, will be parallel to AB.



For, since AB or DF evidently bisects the sides EC and EG of the triangle CEG, it must be parallel to the base CG (VI. 1. cor. 2.).

Parallel lines are thus traced on the ground by help of a string.

PROP. IV. PROB.

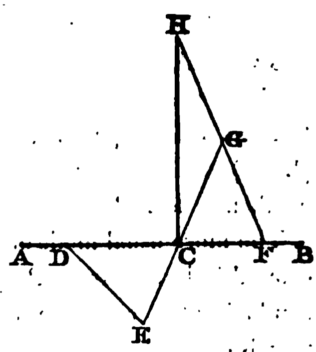
From a point in a given straight line, to erect a perpendicular.

Let C be a given point, from which it is required, by help of straight lines merely, to erect a perpendicular to AB.

In AB, having taken any point D, draw DE equal to DC and inclined to AB, join EC and produce it until CG be equal to CD or DE, make CF equal to CE, join FG

and produce this till GH be equal to GC: Then CH will be perpendicular to AB.

For the triangles DCE and GCF, having the sides DC, CE equal to GC, CF, and the contained angles vertical at C, are equal (I. 3.); whence FG=CD =CG=GH. The point G is therefore the centre of a semicircle which would pass through F, C, H, and consequently the angle FCH is a right angle (III. 19.), or CH is perpendicular to AB.

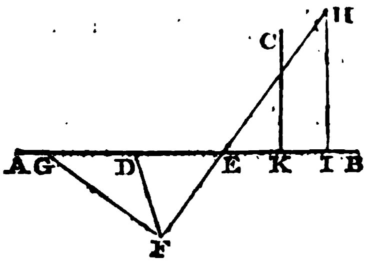


PROP. V. PROB.

To let fall a perpendicular upon a given straight line from a point without it.

Let C be a given point, from which it is required, by a rectilineal construction, to let fall a perpendicular to AB.

In AB take any point D, draw DF obliquely, and make DE =DF=DG, join FE and produce it until EH be equal to EG, make EI=EF, join HI and (Appendix, Part 1. Prop. 3.) draw CK parallel to it: CK is the perpendicular required.



For the point D being obviously the centre of a semicircle passing through G, F, and E, the angle GFE is a right angle; and the triangles EGF, EHI, having the sides GE, EF equal to HE, EI, and their contained angles vertical,—are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle HIE is equal to GFE, or is a right angle; but since CK and HI are parallel, the angle CKA is equal to HIE (I. 22.), and therefore is also a right angle, or CK is perpendicular to AB.

The more usual mode of drawing perpendiculars on the ground is derived from Prop. 10. Book II., and consists in employing the triangle of cords, the knots being at the intervals of 3, 4 and 5 fathoms.

PART II.

Geometrical Problems resolved by means of Compasses, or by the mere description of Circles.

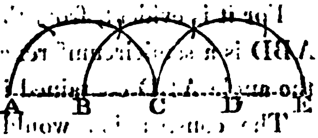
PROP. I. PROB.

To repeat a given distance in the same direction.

Let A and B be two given points; it is required to find, by means of compasses only, a series of equidistant points in the same extended line.

From B as a centre, with the given distance BA, describe a portion of a circle, in which inflect that distance three times to C; from C, with the same radius, describe

another circle, and insert the triple chords to D; repeat that process from D, E, &c. The equidistant points A, B, C, D, E, &c. will all lie in the same straight line.



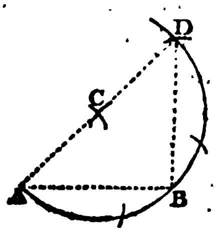
For, by this construction, three equilateral triangles are formed about the point B, and consequently (I. 30. cor. 1.) the whole angle ABC, made by the opposite distances BA and BC, is equal to two right angles, or ABC is a straight line. The same reason applies to the successive points, D, E, &c.

PROP. II. PROB.

To find the direction of a perpendicular from a given point to the straight line joining it with another given point.

Given the points A and B: to find a third point, such that the straight line connecting it with B shall be at right angles to BA.

From A and B, with any convenient distance, describe two arcs intersecting in C, from which, with the same radius, describe a portion of a circle passing through the points A and B, and insert that radius three times from A to D: BD is perpendicular to BA.



For it is evident, from the last Proposition, that the arc ABD is a semicircumference, and consequently (III. 19.) the angle ABD contained in it is a right angle.

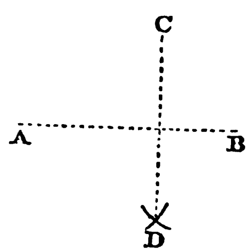
The construction would be somewhat simplified, by taking the distance AB for the radius.

PROP. III. PROB.

To find the direction of a perpendicular let fall from a given point upon the straight line which connects two given points.

Let C be a point, from which a perpendicular is to be let fall upon the straight line joining A and B.

From A as a centre, with the distance AC, describe an arc, and from B as a centre, with the distance BC, describe another arc, intersecting the former in the point D: CD is perpendicular to AB.



For CAD and CBD are evidently isosceles triangles, and consequently (I. 7.) their vertices must lie in a straight line AB, which bisects their base CD at right angles.

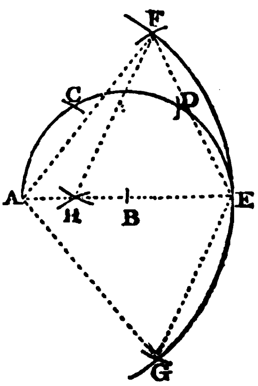
It will be perceived that, in assigning the point D, this construction differs in no respect from the mode employed in Prop. 6. Book I. of the Elements.

PROP. IV. PROB.

To bisect a given distance.

Let A and B be two given points; it is required to find the middle point H in the same direction.

From B as a centre, with the radius BA, describe a semicircle, by inserting that distance successively from A to C, D, and E; from A as a centre, with the distance AE, describe a portion of a circle FEG, in which, from the point E, insert the chords EF and EG equal to EC; and from the points F and G, with the same radius EC describe arcs intersecting in H: This point bisects the distance AB.



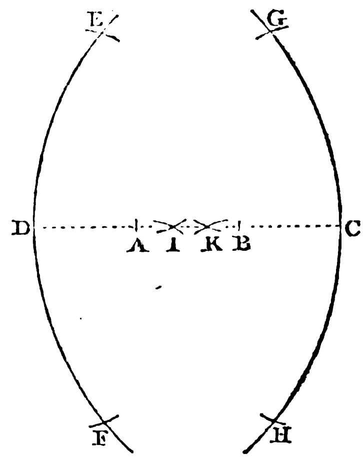
For, by the first Proposition, the points A, B, and E extend in a straight line; but the triangles FAG, FHG, and FEG, being by construction isosceles, their vertices A, H, and E (I. 7.) must occupy in a straight line; whence the point H lies in the direction AB. Again, because EFH is an isosceles triangle, $AF^2-HF^2=EA.AH$ (II. 20.); that is, AE^2-EC^2, or (III, 19. and II. 10.) AC^2 or $AB^2=EA.AH$. Wherefore, since EA is double of AB, the segment AH must be one half of that distance.

PROP. V. PROB.

To trisect a given distance.

Let it be required to find two intermediate points that are situate at equal intervals in the line of communication AB.

Repeat (App. II. 1.) the distance AB on both sides to C and D; from these points, with the radius CD, describe the arcs EDF and GCH, from D and C insert the chords DE and DF, CG and CH, all equal to DB, and, with the same distance and from the points E and F, G and H, describe arcs intersecting in I and K: The distance AB is trisected by the points I and K.



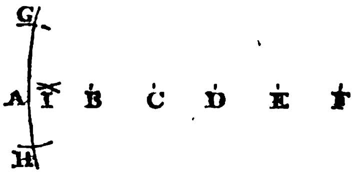
For it may be demonstrated, as in the last proposition, that the points I and K lie in the same direction AB. In like manner, it appears (II. 20.) that $DG^2 - KG^2 = CD.DK$, or $9AB^2 - 4AB^2$ or $5AB^2 = 3AB.DK$; and consequently $5AB = 3DK$, or $2AB = 3AK$, and $AB = 3BK$. But, for the same reason, $AB = 3AI$.

PROP. VI. PROB.

To cut off any aliquot part of a given distance.

Suppose it were required to cut off the fifth part of the distance between the points A and B.

Repeat (App. II. 1.) the distance AB four times, to F; from F, with the radius FA, describe the arc GAH; inflect the chords AG and AH equal to AB, and, with that radius and from the points G and H, describe arcs intersecting in I: AI is the fifth part of the line of communication AB.



For, as before, the point I is situate in AB. But since AGI is evidently an isosceles triangle, and AF is equal to FG, it follows (II. 28. cor.) that $AG^2=AF.AI$, and consequently $AB^2=5AB.AI$; whence $AB=5AI$.

PROP. VII. PROB.

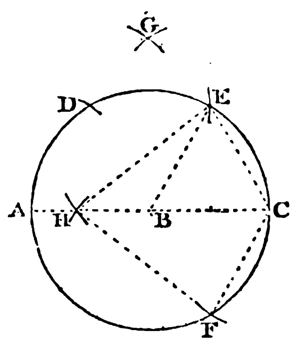
To divide a given distance by medial section.

Let it be required to cut the distance AB, such that $BH^2=BA.AH$.

From B describe a circle with the radius BA, which insert successively from A to D, E, C, and F; from the extremities of the diameter AC and with the chord AE, describe two arcs intersecting in G; and, from the

points E and F with the distance BG, describe other two arcs intersecting in H: This is the point of medial section.

For it is evident that this point H lies in the straight line AB. And because the triangles AGB, CGB have their sides respectively equal, the angle ABG (I. 2.) is a right angle, and consequently (II. 10.) $AG^2=AB^2+BG^2$; but $AG=AE$, and $AE^2=3AB^2$ (IV. 17. cor. 2.); wherefore $3AB^2 = AB^2 + BG^2$, and $BG^2 = 2AB^2$. Now since $BE=EC$, it follows, (II. 20.) that $HE^2 - BE^2 = CH.HB$; but $HE^2 - BE^2 = BG^2 - BE^2 = AB^2$, and therefore $AB^2 = CH.HB$. Whence CH is cut by a medial section at B, and consequently (II. 19. cor. 1.) its greater segment BC or AB is likewise divided medially at H by the remaining portion BH.



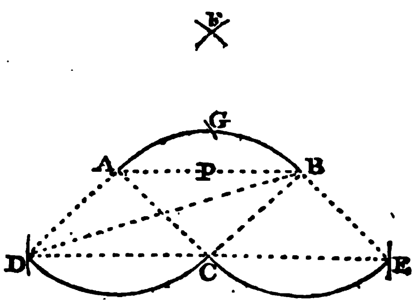
PROP. VIII. PROB.

To bisect a given arc of a circle.

Let it be required to bisect the arc AB of a circle whose centre is C.

From the extremities A and B with the radius AC, describe opposite arcs, and from the centre C of the circle insert the chord AB to D and E; from these points, with the distance DB describe arcs intersecting in F; and from D or E, with the distance CF, cut the given arc AB in G: AB is bisected in that point.

For the figures ABCD and ABEC being evidently rhomboids, DC and CE are both parallel to AB, and hence constitute one straight line; consequently the triangles DFC and EFC having their corresponding sides equal, the angle DCF is a right angle, and (II. 10.) $DF^2 = DC^2+CF^2$. But,



in the rhomboid ABCD, $DB^2+CA^2=2DC^2+2CB^2$ (II. 22.), or $BD^2=2DC^2+CB^2$; and since DB=DF, $2DC^2 + CB^2=DC^2+CF^2$, whence $DC^2+CB^2 = CF^2$, or $DC^2+CG^2=DG^2$, and therefore (II. 11.) DCG is a right angle. And because CG is perpendicular to DC, it is likewise (I. 22.) perpendicular to AB, and the triangles CAP and CBP are equal (I. 21.), and the angle ACG equal to BCG; whence (III. 12.) the arc AG=BG.

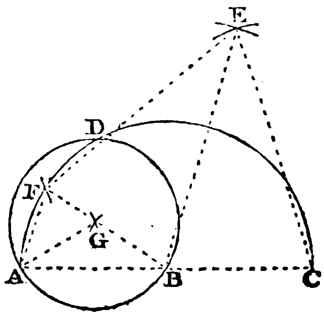
PROP. IX. PROB.

To find the centre of a circle.

Assume an arc AB greater than a quadrant, and from one extremity B, with the distance BA, describe a semicircle ADC, cutting the given circumference in D; from the points B and C, with the distance CD, describe arcs intersecting in E, and, from that point with the same distance, describe an arc cutting ADC in F; and lastly, from

the points A and B, with the distance AF, describe arcs intersecting in G: This point is the centre of the circle ADB.

For the isosceles triangles BEC, BEF, being evidently equal, the angle FBC is equal to both the angles at the base; but FBC is (I. 32. El.) equal to the interior angles BAF and BFA of the isosceles triangle ABF, and hence that triangle is similar to BEF. Wherefore BE : BF : : BA : AF, or CD : BD : : BA : AG; consequently the isosceles triangles CBD and BGA (VI. 12. cor.) are similar, and the angle BCD is equal to GBA; BG is, therefore, parallel to CD, and hence (I. 30. El.) the angle BDC, or BCD, is equal to GBD. The triangles BGA and BGD, having thus the side BA equal to BD, BG common, and equal contained angles GBA and GBD, are (I. 3. El.) equal, and therefore the side GA is equal to GD. The point G being thus equidistant from three points, A, D, and B in the circumference, is hence (III. 8. cor.) the centre of the circle.



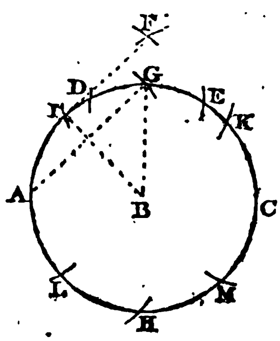
PROP. X. PROB.

To divide the circumference of a given circle successively into four, eight, twelve, and twenty-four equal parts.

1. Insert the radius AB three times from A to D, E, and C; from the extremities of the diameter AC, and with a distance equal to the chord AE, describe arcs intersecting in the point F; and from A, with the distance BF, cut the circumference on opposite sides at G and H: AG, GC, CH, and HA are quadrants.

For, as before, $AF^2=AE^2=3AB^2$; and the triangle ABF being right-angled, $3AB^2=AF^2=AB^2+BF^2$, and therefore $BF^2=AG^2=2AB^2$; whence (II. 12.) ABG is a right angle, and AG a quadrant.

2. From the point F with the radius AB, cut the circle in I and K, and from A and C insert the chord AI to L, H and M; the circumference is divided into eight equal portions by the points A, I, G, K, C, M, H, and L.



For BF^2, being equivalent to $2AB^2$, is equivalent to the squares of BI and IF, and consequently BIF is a right angle; but the triangle BIF is also isosceles, and therefore the angle IBF at the base is half a right angle; whence the arc IG is an octant.

3. The arc DG, on being repeated, will form twelve equal sections of the circumference.

For the arc AD is the sixth or two-twelfth parts of the circumference, and AG is the fourth or three-twelfths; consequently the difference DG is one-twelfth.

4. The arc ID is the twenty-fourth part of the circumference.

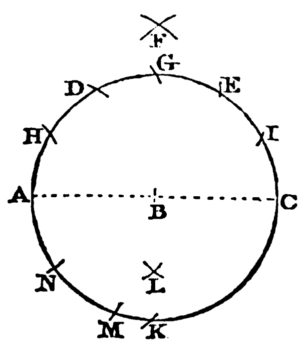
For the octant AI is equal to three twenty-fourths, and

the sextant AD is equal to four twenty-fourths; their difference ID is hence one twenty-fourth part of the circumference.

PROP. XI. PROB.

To divide the circumference of a given circle successively into five, ten, and twenty equal parts.

Mark out the semicircumference ADEC, by the triple insertion of the radius, from A and C, with the double chord AE, describe arcs intersecting in F, from A, with the distance BF, cut the circle in G and K, insert the chords GH and GI equal to the radius AB, and, from the points H and I, with the distance BF or AG, describe arcs intersecting in L.



It is evident from App. II. 7, that BL is the greater segment of the radius BH divided by a medial section; wherefore (IV. 23. cor. 2. El.) AL is equal to the side of the inscribed pentagon, and BL to that of the decagon inscribed in the given circle. Hence AL may be inserted five times in the circumference, and BL ten times; and consequently the arc MK, or the excess of the fourth above the fifth, is equal to the twentieth part of the whole circumference.

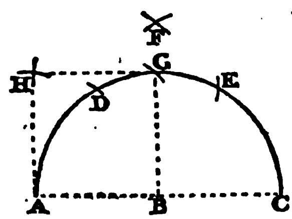
Scholium. This proposition, and the preceding, include the happiest application of the circle to the solution of such problems.

PROP. XII. PROB.

From a given side to trace out a square.

Let the points A and B terminate the side of a square, which it is required to trace.

From B as a centre describe the semicircle ADEC, from A and C, with the distance AE, describe arcs intersecting in F, from A, with the distance BF, cut the circumference in G, and from A and G, with the radius AB, describe arcs intersecting in H: The points H and G are corners of the required square.



For (App. II. 10.) the angle ABG is a right angle, and the distances AB, AH, HG, and GB, are, by construction, all equal.

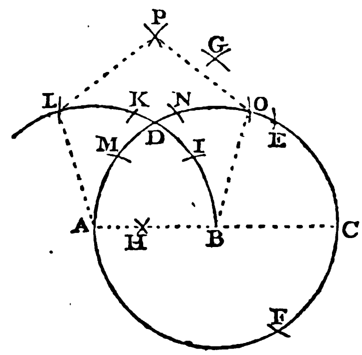
PROP. XIII. PROB.

Given the side of a regular pentagon, to find the traces of the figure.

From B describe through A the circle ADECF, in which the radius is inflicted four times, from A and C with the double chord AE describe arcs intersecting in G, from E and F, with the distance BG, describe arcs intersecting in H, from A, with the radius AB, describe a portion of a circle, inflect BH thrice from B to L and from

A to O, and lastly from L and O, with the radius AB, describe arcs intersecting in P: The points A, L, P, O, B mark out the polygon.

For, from App. II. 7, it is evident that BH is the greater segment of the distance AB divided by a medial section. Consequently (IV. 3. El.) the isosceles triangles BAI, IAK, KAL, ABM, MBN, and NBO, have each of the angles at the base double their vertical angle. Wherefore the angles BAL and ABO are



each of them six-fifths of a right angle (IV. 4. cor.), and hence (I. 33. cor.) the points L and O are corners of the pentagon; but P is evidently the vertex of the pentagon, since the sides LP and OP are each equal to AB.

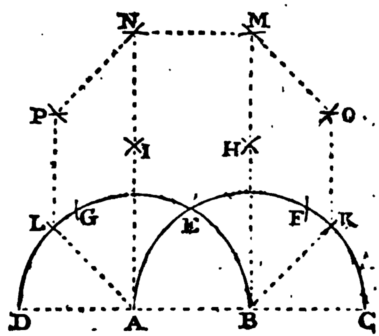
Scholium. The pentagon might also have been traced, as in Book IV. Prop. 5., by describing arcs from A and B with the distance HC, and again, from their intersection P, and with the radius AB, cutting those arcs in L and O. It is likewise evident, from Book IV. Prop. 8, that the same previous construction would serve for describing a decagon, P being made the centre of a circle in which AB is inserted ten times.

PROP. XIV. PROB.

The side of a regular octagon being given, to mark out the figure.

Let the side of an octagon terminate in the points A and B; to find the remaining corners of the figure.

From the centres A and B, with the radius AB, describe the two semicircles AEFC and BEGD; with the double chord AF, and from A, C and B, D describe arcs intersecting in H, I; from these points, with the radius AB, cut the semicircles in K, L: on HI describe the square HMNI, by making the diagonals HN, IM equal to BH, and the sides equal to AB; and, on MH and NI, describe the rhombusses MOKH and NPLI: The points A, B, K, O, M, N, P, and L, are the several corners of the octagon.



For (by App. II. Prop. 10.) BH, AI are both of them perpendicular to BA, and BKH, ALI are right-angled isosceles triangles; HI is therefore parallel to BA, and HMNI, consisting of triangles equal to BKH, is a square; whence all the sides AB, BK, KO, OM, MN, NP, PL, and LA of the octagon are equal: But they likewise contain equal angles; for ABK, composed of ABH and HBK, is equal to three half right angles, and BKO, by reason of the parallels BH and KO, being the supplement of HBK, is also equal to

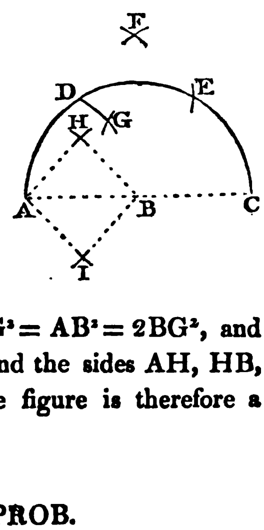
three half right angles. In the same manner, the other angles of the figure may be proved to be equal.

PROP. XV. PROB.

On a given diagonal to describe a square.

Let the points A and B be the opposite corners of a square which it is required to trace.

From B as a centre describe the semicircle ADEC, from A and C with the double chord AE describe arcs intersecting in F, from C with the distance BF describe an arc and cut this from A with the radius AD in G, and lastly from B and A with the distance BG describe arcs intersecting in H and I: ABHI is the required square.

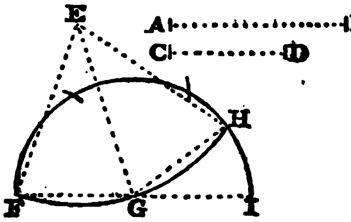


For, in the triangle AGC, the straight line GB bisects the base, and consequently (II. 22.) $AG^2 + CG^2 = 2AB^2 + 2BG^2$; but, (by App. II. Prop. 10.) $CG^2 = BF^2 = 2AB^2$; whence $AG^2 = AB^2 = 2BG^2$, and (II. 11.) AHB is a right angle; and the sides AH, HB, BI, and IA, being all equal, the figure is therefore a square.

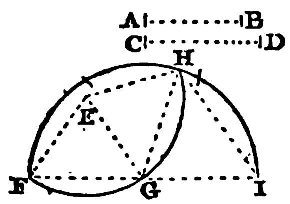
PROP. XVI. PROB.

Two distances being given, to find a third proportional to them.

Let it be required to find a third, proportional to the distances AB and CD.



From any point F with the distance AB, describe a portion of a circle, in which insert FG equal to CD, and from G, with that distance, describe the semicircle FHI; HI is the third proportional required.



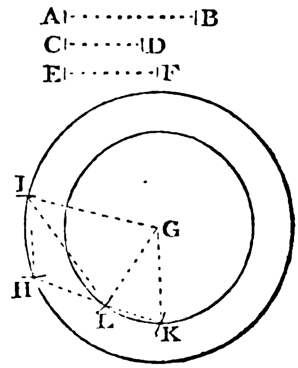
For the angles GEH and IGH are each of them double the angle GFH or IFH at the circumference (III. 17. El.); whence the triangles GEH and IGH must also have the angles at the base equal, and are consequently similar: Wherefore (VI. 12. El.) EG : GH : : GH : HI.

If the first term AB be less than half the second term CD, this construction, without some help, would evidently not succeed. But AB may be previously doubled, or assumed 4, 8, or 16 times greater, so that the circle FGH shall always cut FHI; and in that case, HI, being likewise doubled, or taken 4, 8, or 16 times greater, will give the true result.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

To find a fourth proportional to three given distances.

Let it be required to find a fourth proportional to the distances AB, CD, and EF.



From any point G, describe two concentric circles HI and KL with the distances AB and EF; in the circumference of the first insert HI equal to CD, assume any point K in the second circumference, and cut this in L by an arc described from I with the distance HK; the chord LK is the fourth proportional required.

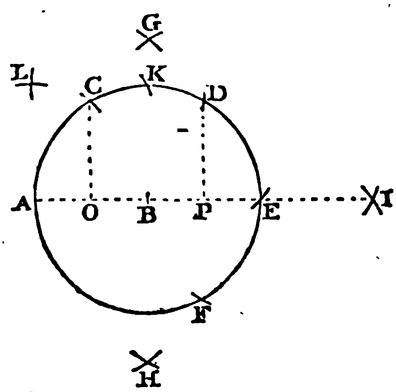
For the triangles ILG and HKG are equal, since their corresponding sides are evidently equal; whence the angle IGL is equal to HGK, and taking away HGL, the angle IGH remains equal to LGK; consequently the isoceles triangles GIH and GLK are similar, and GI : IH : : GL : LK, that is, AB : CD : : EF : LK.

If the third term EF be more than double the first AB, this construction, it is obvious, will not answer without some modification. It may, however, be made to suit all the variety of cases, by multiplying equally AB and the chord LK, as in the last proposition.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

To find the linear expressions for the square roots of the natural numbers, from one to ten inclusive.

This problem is evidently the same as, to find the sides of squares which are equivalent to the successive multiples of the square constructed on the straight line representing the unit. Let AB, therefore, be that measure: And from B as a centre, describe a circle, in which inflect the radius four times, from A to C, D, E, and F; from the opposite points A and E, with the double chord AD, describe arcs intersecting in G and H,—with the same distance, and from the points D, F, describe arcs intersecting in I,—and, with still the same distance and from E, cut the circumference in K; and from A and K, with the radius AB describe arcs intersecting in L: Then will



$AK^2 = 2AB^2$,
$AD^2 = 3AB^2$,
$AE^2 = 4AB^2$,
$IK^2 = 5AB^2$,
$IG^2 = 6AB^2$,
$IC^2 = 7AB^2$,
$GH^2 = 8AB^2$,
$IA^2 = 9AB^2$,
and $IL^2 = 10AB^2$.

For, in the isosceles triangles ACB and BDE, the perpendiculars CO and DP must bisect the bases AB and BE; and the triangle ADI being likewise isosceles, IP = AP, and consequently IB = AE = 2AB. But from what has been formerly shown, it is evident that $AK^2 = 2AB^2$ and $AD^2 = 3AB^2$; and since AE = 2AB, $AE^2 = 4AB^2$.

In the right-angled triangles IBK and IBG, $IK^2 = IB^2 + BK^2 = 4EB^2 + BK^2 = 5AB^2$, $IG^2 = IB^2 + BG^2 = 4AB^2 + 2AB^2 = 6AB^2$; but (II. 23.) $IC^2 = IB^2 + BC^2 + IB.2BO = 4AB^2 + AB^2 + 2AB^2 = 7AB^2$. Again, GH being double of BG, $GH^2 = 4.2AB^2 = 8AB^2$, and AI being the triple of AE, $AI^2 = 9AB^2$; and lastly, IAL being a right-angled triangle, $IL^2 = IA^2 + AL^2 = 9AB^2 + AB^2 = 10AB^2$.

If AB, therefore, denote the unit of any scale, it will follow, that $AK = \sqrt{2}$, $AD = \sqrt{3}$, $AE = \sqrt{4}$, $IK = \sqrt{5}$, $IG = \sqrt{6}$, $IC = \sqrt{7}$, $GH = \sqrt{8}$, $IA = \sqrt{9}$, and $IL = \sqrt{10}$.

ELEMENTS

OF

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

TRIGONOMETRY is the science of calculating the sides or angles of a triangle. It grounds its conclusions on the application of the principles of Geometry and Arithmetic.

The sides of a triangle are measured, by referring them to some definite portion of linear extent, which is fixed by convention. The mensuration of angles is effected, by means of that universal standard derived from the partition of a circuit. Since angles were shown to be proportional to the intercepted arcs of a circle described from their vertex, the subdivision of the circumference will therefore determine their magnitude. A quadrant, or the fourth-part of the circumference, as it corresponds to a right angle, forms hence the basis of angular measures. But these measures depend on the relation of certain orders of lines connected with the circle, and which it is necessary previously to investigate.

DEFINITIONS.

1. The *complement* of an arc is its defect from a quadrant; its *supplement* is its defect from a semicircumference; and its *explement* is its defect from the whole circumference.

2. The *sine* of an arc is a perpendicular let fall from one of its extremities upon a diameter passing through the other.

3. The *versed sine* of an arc is the portion of a diameter intercepted between its sine and the circumference.

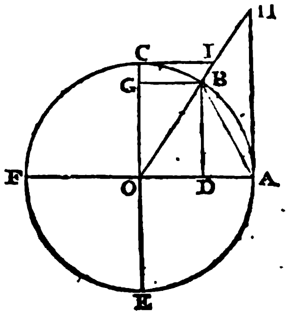
4. The *tangent* of an arc is a perpendicular drawn at one extremity to a diameter, and limited by a diameter extending through the other.

5. The *secant* of an arc is the straight line which joins the centre with the termination of the tangent.

In naming the *sine*, *tangent*, or *secant*, of the *complement* of an arc, it is usual to employ the abbreviated terms of *cosine*, *cotangent* and *cosecant*. A farther contraction is frequently made in noting the radius and other lines connected with the circle, by retaining only the first syllable of the word, or even the mere initial letter.

Let ACFE be a circle, of which the diameters AF and CE are at right angles; having taken any arc AB, produce the radius OB, and draw BD, AH perpendicular to AF, and BG,

CI perpendicular to CE. Of this assumed arc AB, the *complement* is BC, the *supplement* is BCF, and the *explement* is BCFEA; the *sine* is BD, the *cosine* BG or OD, the *versed sine* AD, the *coversed sine* CG, and the *supplemental versed sine* FD; the *tangent* of AB is AH, and its *cotangent* CI; and the *secant* of the same arc is OH, and its *cosecant* OI.



Several obvious consequences flow from these definitions:—

1. Since the diameter which bisects an arc bisects also the chord at right angles, it follows that half the chord of any arc is equal to the sine of half that arc.

2. In the right-angled triangle ODB, $BD^2+OD^2=OB^2$; and hence the squares of the sine and cosine of an arc are together equal to the square of the radius.

3. The triangle ODB being evidently similar to OAH, OD : DB : : OA : AH; that is, the cosine of an arc is to the sine, as the radius to the tangent.

4. From the similar triangles ODB and OAH, OD : OB : : OA : OH; wherefore the radius is a mean proportional between the cosine and the secant of an arc.

5. Since $BD^2=AD.FD$, it is evident that the sine of an arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and the

supplemental versed sine, or between the sum and difference of the radius and the cosine.

6. Hence also the chord of an arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and the diameter; for $AB^2 = AD.AF$.

7. The triangles OAH and ICO being similar, AH : OA : : OC : CI; and hence the radius is a mean proportional between the tangent of an arc and its cotangent.

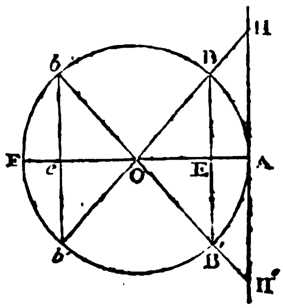
8. Since $OD^2 = BG^2 = CG.CE$, it follows that the cosine of an arc is a mean proportional between the sum and difference of the radius and the sine.

The circumference of the circle is commonly divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees, each of them being subdivided into 60 minutes, and these again being each distinguished into 60 seconds. It very seldom is required to carry this subdivision any farther. Degrees, minutes, seconds, or thirds, are conveniently noted by these marks, $^\circ \quad ' \quad '' \quad '''$

Thus, 23° 27′ 43″ 42‴, signifies 23 degrees, 27 minutes, 43 seconds, and 42 thirds.

Scholium. To discern more clearly the connexion of the lines derived from the circle, it will be proper to trace their successive values, while the corresponding arc is supposed continually to increase. Let the arc AB′, on the opposite side, be made equal to AB, draw the diameter FOA, extend the diameters b'OB′, and bOB′, join BB′ and bb', and

at A apply the double tangent HAH′. It is evident that BE=be, or that the sine of the arc AB is equal to the sine of its supplement ABb. But B′E and $b'e$, or the sines of ABFb' and ABFb'B′ which lie on the opposite side of the diameter, are likewise equal to BE; that is, the inverted sine of an arc is equal to the sine of that arc or of its supplement, augmented, each by a semicircumference. The arc AB, and its explement ABFB′ have both the same cosine OE; and the supplemental arc ABb, and its defect from a whole circumference, have likewise the same cosine, although with an inverted position. AH and OH are respectively the tangent and secant not only of AB, but of the arc ABbFb', which is compounded of the original arc and a semicircumference; and the similar lines AH′ and OH′, on the opposite side, are at once the tangent and secant of the supplemental arc ABb, and of ABbFb'B′, likewise compounded of that arc and a semicircumference.



As the prolonged diameter b'OBH, therefore, turns from right to left about the centre O, the sine and tangent BE and AH both increase, till the arc attains 90°, when the sine becomes equal to the radius OA, and the tangent vanishes into unlimited extent. Between 90° and 180°, the sine be again diminishes, and the tangent AH′ re-appearing in the opposite direction, likewise contracts by successive diminutions. In the third quadrant Fb', the sine $b'e$ merges with a contrary position, and increases till it be-

comes equal again to the radius; while the tangent AH, resuming its first position, stretches out till it vanishes away. Between 270° and 360°, the opposite sine B′E again contracts, and the tangent AH′, re-appearing on the same side, shrinks also gradually to a point. In the first and fourth quadrants, the cosine OE lies on the same side of the centre, while the secant stretches from it in the direction of the extremity of the arc; but, in the second and third quadrants, the cosine Oe shifts to the other side, and the secant shoots from the centre in a direction opposite to the termination of the arc.

The same phases are thus repeated at each succeeding revolution. Hence, if m denote any integral number, the sine of an arc a is equal to the sine of the arc $(2m-1)\ 180°-a$, and to opposite sines of $(2m-1)\ 180°+a$ and of $2m.180°-a$; the cosine and secant of an arc a are equal to the cosine and secant of $2m.180°-a$, and to the opposite cosines and secants of $(2m-1)\ 180°-a$ and of $(2m-1)\ 180°+a$; and the tangent or cotangent of an arc a is equal to the tangent or cotangent of the arc $(2m-1)\ 180°+a$, and to the opposite tangents or cotangents of the arcs $(2m-1)\ 180-$ and $2m.180-a$.

An arc may, by a simple extension of analogy, be conceived to comprehend innumerable other arcs. Thus, the arc AB, in fact, represents all the arcs which have their origin at A and their termination at B; it therefore includes not only the small arc AB, but that arc as augmented by successive revolutions, or the repeated addition of entire circumferences. Hence the sine of an arc a is the same with the sine of any arc $n.360°+a$.

It may be farther observed, that the tangent of any arc

ending at B is the same as the tangent of any other arc which terminates at the distance of a semicircumference beyond the former; and consequently the tangent of A represents the tangents of all the arcs $n.180°+a$.

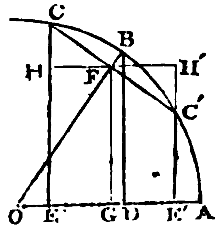
PROP. I. THEOR.

The rectangle under the radius and the sine of the sum of two arcs, is equal to the sum of the rectangles under their alternate sines and cosines.

Let A and B denote two arcs, of which A is the greater; then, $R.sin(A+B)=sinA.cosB+cosA.sinB$.

Of the two arcs AB and BC, it is evident that AC will represent the sum, and that BC′ being made equal to BC, their difference will be expressed by AC′. Join OC, OC′, OB and CC′; and draw HFH′ parallel, and CE, FG, BD, and H′C′E′ perpendicular, to the radius OA.

The triangles COF and C′OF, are equal, since they have the side CO equal to C′O, OF common, and the contained angles FOC and FOC′, measured by the equal arcs BC and BC′, equal; wherefore the angle OFC is equal to OFC′, and OF bisects CC′ at right angles. But the triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : BD : : OF : FG or HE, and consequently OB.HE=BD.OF. The triangles OBD and CFH are likewise similar, for the right angle



CFO being equal to HFG, if HFO be taken from both, the remaining angle CFH is equal to OFG or OBD; whence OB : OD : : CF : CH, and OB.CH=OD CF. Wherefore OB.HE+OB.CH, or OB.CE=BD.OF+OD.CF. But BD and OD are the sine and cosine of the arc AB, CF and OF are the sine and cosine of BC, and CE is the sine of the compound arc AC. Consequently, $R.sin\,AC=sin\,AB.cos\,BC+cos\,AB.sin\,BC$.

Cor. 1. Hence, likewise, the rectangle under the radius and the sine of the difference of two arcs, is equal to the difference of the rectangles under their alternate sines and cosines; or $R.sin\,AC'=sin\,AB.cos\,BC-cos\,AB.\,sin\,BC$.

Cor. 2. If the two arcs A and B be equal, it is obvious that $R.sin2A=sin\,A.2cos\,A$.

Cor. 3. Let the arc A contain 45°; then
$R.sin(45^\circ\pm B)=sin45^\circ(cos\,B\pm sin\,B)=\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}R^2}(cos\,B\pm sin\,B)$
or $R.sin(45^\circ\pm B)=R\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}}(cos\,B\pm sin\,B)$.

Cor. 4. Let $2A=C$, and, by the second corollary,
$R.sin\,C=sin\tfrac{1}{2}C.2cos\tfrac{1}{2}C$.

PROP. II. THEOR.

The rectangle under the radius and the cosine of the sum of two arcs, is equal to the difference of the rectangles under their respective cosines and sines.

Let A and B denote two arcs, of which A is the greater; then $R.cos(A+B)=cosA.cosB-sinA.sinB$.

For, in the preceding figure, the triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : OD : : OF : OG, and OB.OG= OD.OF, and the triangles OBD and CFH being likewise similar, OB : BD : : CF : FH, or GE, and consequently OB.GE=BD.CF. Wherefore OB.OG — OB.GE= OB.OE=OD.OF—BD.CF; that is,

$R.cosAC=cosAB.cosBC-sinAB.sinBC$.

Cor. 1. Hence, likewise, the rectangle under the radius and the cosine of the difference of two arcs is equal to the sum of the rectangles under their respective cosines and sines; or $R.cosAC'=cosAB.cosBC+sinAB.sinBC$.

Cor. 2. If A and B represent two equal arcs, it will follow, that $R.cos2A=cosA^2-sinA^2=(cosA+sinA)(cosA-sinA)$; or, since $cosA^2=R^2-sinA^2$,

$R.cos2A=R^2-2sinA^2=2cosA^2-R^2$.

Cor. 3. Since, $sinA^2=\frac{1}{2}R(R-cos2A)$, and $sinB^2=\frac{1}{2}R(R-cos2B)$; therefore $sinA^2-sinB^2=\frac{1}{2}R(cos2B-cos2A)$.

Cor. 4. Let the arc A be equal to 45°, and $R\ cos(45^\circ\pm B)=sin45^\circ(cosB\pm sinB)$.

Cor. 5. Let $2A=C$, and by the second corollary, $R.cosC=R^2-2sin\frac{1}{2}C^2=2cos\frac{1}{2}C^2-R^2$.

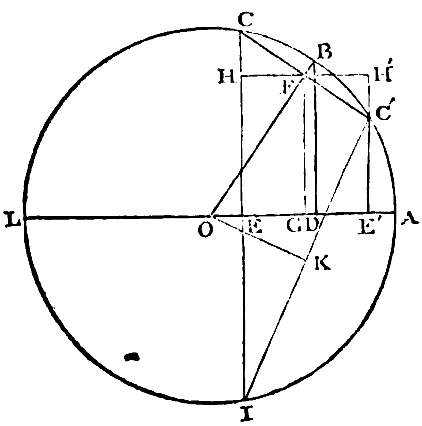
PROP. III. THEOR.

Of three equidifferent arcs, the rectangle under the radius and the sum of the sines of the extremes, is equal to twice the rectangle under the cosine of the common difference and the sine of the mean arc.

Let A—B, A, and A+B represent three arcs increasing by the common difference B; then

$R(sin(A+B)+sin(A-B))=2cosB.sinA.$

The property is easily deduced by combining the preceding theorems; but it will be more easily perceived, by referring immediately to the original figure. The triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : BD : : OF : FG, that is OB : BD : : 2OF : 2FG or CE+C′E′, and OB(CE +C′E′)=2OF.BD; that is, $R(sinAC+sinAC')=2cosBC.sinAB.$



Cor. 1. Hence, likewise, of three equidifferent arcs, the rectangle under the radius and the difference of the sines of the extremes, is equal to twice the rectangle under the

sine of the common difference and the cosine of the mean arc; or $R(sin(A+B)—sin(A—B))=2sinB.cosA$.

Cor. 2. Hence $R(cos(A—B)+cos(A+B))=2cosB.cosA$, and $R(cos(A—B)—cos(A+B))=2sinB.sinA$.

For OB : OD : : OF : OG : : 2QF : 2OG or OE′+OE, and OB(OE′+OE)=2OF.OD; that is,

$R(cosAC'+cosAC)=2cosBC.cosAB$.

Again, OB : BD : : CF : FH : : 2CF : 2FH, or OE′—OE, and OB(OE′—OE)=2CF.BD; that is,

$R(cosAC'—cosAC)=2sinBC.sinAB$.

Cor. 3. Let the radius be expressed by unit, and the arcs B and A denoted by a and na; then collectively,

$2sin\ a.cos\ na=sin(n+1)a—sin(n—1)a$,

$2cos\ a.sin\ na=sin(n+1)a+sin(n—1)a$,

$2sin\ a.sin\ na=cos(n—1)a—cos(n+1)a$, and

$2cos\ a.cos\ na=cos(n—1)a+cos(n+1)a$.

Cor. 4. Since $versB=R—cosB$, it follows that $R(sin(A+B)+sin(A-B))=2RsinA—2versB.sinA$, and consequently $R\ sin(A+B)=2RsinA—Rsin(A—B)—2versB.sinA$, or $R(sin(A+B)-sinA)=R(sinA-sin(A-B))—2versB.sinA$.

In the same way, it may be shown that $R(cos(A—B)—cosA)=R(cosA—cos(A+B))—2versB.cosA$.

Cor. 5. If the mean arc contain 60°, then $R(sin(60°+B)—sin(60°-B))=2sinB.cos60°$, or $sinB.2sin30°$. But twice the sine of 30° being (cor. 1. def.) equal to the chord of 60° or the radius, it is evident that $sin(60°+B)—sin(60°—B)=sinB$, or

$sin(60°+B)=sin(60°—B)+sinB$.

Cor. 6. Produce CE to the circumference, join C′I meeting the production of FG in K, and join OK. Since FK is parallel to CI and bisects CC,′ it likewise bisects IC′; and hence OK is perpendicular to KC′, which is, therefore, the sine of half the arc IAC′, or of half the sum of the arcs AC and AC′, as CF is the sine of half their difference. But (II.21. El.) $IC'^2 - CC'^2 = IC.2C'E'$, or $C'K^2 - CF^2 = CE.C'E'$; consequently $sin^2AB - sin^2BC = sin AC.sin AC'$, or employing the general notation,

$sin A^2 - sin B^2 = sin(A + B).sin(A - B) =$ (2. cor. 3.) $\frac{1}{2}R(cos 2B - cos 2A.)$

Scholium. By help of this proposition, the sines and cosines of multiple arcs are easily determined; but the expressions for them will become simpler, if, as in cor. 2. the radius be supposed equal to unit. For A, 2A and 3A being three equidifferent arcs,

$sin A + sin 3A = 2cos A.sin 2A = 2cos A.2cos A.sin A$, or

$sin 3A = 4cos A^2.sin A - sin A$; and

$cos A + cos 3A = 2cos A.cos 2A = 2cos A(2cos A^2 - 1) =$

$4cos A^3 - 2cos A$, or

$cos 3A = 4cos A^3 - 3cos A$.

Again, since 2A, 3A, and 4A are equidifferent arcs, $sin 2A + sin 4A = 2cos A.sin 3A = 8cos A^3.sin A - 2cos A.sin A$, or $sin 4A = 8cos A^3.sin A - 4cos A.sin A$;

$cos 2A + cos 4A = 2cos A.cos 3A = 2cos A(4cos A^3 - 3cos A)$, or $cos 4A = 8cos A^4 - 8cos A^2 + 1$. In like manner, assuming the equidifferent arcs 3A, 4A, 5A, the sine and cosine of 5A are found; and this mode of procedure may be continually repeated. To abridge the notation, however, it will be proper to express the sine and the cosine of the arc

a, by s and c. The results are thus expressed in a tabular form:

$$
(1.)\quad
\begin{aligned}
Sin\ 2a &= 2cs.\\
Sin\ 3a &= 4c^2s - s.\\
Sin\ 4a &= 8c^3s - 4cs.\\
Sin\ 5a &= 16c^4s - 12c^2s + s.\\
Sin\ 6a &= 32c^5s - 32c^3s + 6cs.\\
Sin\ 7a &= 64c^6s - 80c^4s + 24\,cs - s.\\
&\&c.\ \&c.\ \&c.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
(2.)\quad
\begin{aligned}
Cos\ 2a &= 2c^2 - 1.\\
Cos\ 3a &= 4c^3 - 3c.\\
Cos\ 4a &= 8c^4 - 8c^2 + 1.\\
Cos\ 5a &= 16c^5 - 20c^3 + 5c.\\
Cos\ 6a &= 32c^6 - 48c^4 + 18c^2 - 1.\\
&\&c.\ \&c.\ \&c.
\end{aligned}
$$

If in these expressions, $1-s^2$ be substituted for c^2, in the sines of the odd multiples of a, and in the cosines of the even multiples, the sines and cosines of such multiple arcs will be represented merely by the powers of the sine a.

$$
(3.)\quad
\begin{aligned}
Sin\ 3a &= 3s - 4s^3.\\
Sin\ 5a &= 5s - 20s^3 + 16s^5.\\
Sin\ 7a &= 7s - 56s^3 + 112s^5 - 64s^7.\\
&\&c.\ \&c.\ \&c.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
(4.)\quad
\begin{aligned}
Cos\ 2a &= +1 - 2s^2.\\
Cos\ 4a &= +1 - 8s^2 + 8s^4.\\
Cos\ 6a &= +1 - 18s^2 + 48s^4 - 32s^6.\\
&\&c.\ \&c.\ \&c.
\end{aligned}
$$

If the terms of the first table be repeatedly multiplied by $2s$, and those of the second by $2c$, observing the sub-

stitutions of cor. 2, there will result expressions for the sines and cosines. Thus, $2\sin a^2 = 2s.s = -\cos 2a + 1$, $4\sin a^3 = -2s.\cos 2a + 2s = -\sin 3a + \sin a + 2s = -\sin 3a + 3s$, and $8\sin a^4 = -2s.\sin 3a + 2s.3s = +\cos 4a - \cos 2a - 3\cos 2a + 3 = \cos 4a - 4\cos 2a + 3$. Again, $2\cos a^2 = 2c.c = \cos 2a + 1$; $4\cos a^3 = 2c.\cos 2a + 2c = \cos 3a + \cos a + 2c = \cos 3a + 3\cos a$, and $8\cos a^4 = 2c.\cos 3a + 2c.3\cos a = \cos 4a + \cos 2a + 3\cos 2a + 3 = \cos 4a + 4\cos 2a + 3$. In this manner, the following tables are formed.

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Sin} a &= s. \\
2 \operatorname{Sin} a^2 &= -\cos 2a + 1. \\
4 \operatorname{Sin} a^3 &= -\sin 3a + 3s. \\
(5.)\quad 8 \operatorname{Sin} a^4 &= +\cos 4a - 4\cos 2a + 3. \\
16 \operatorname{Sin} a^5 &= +\sin 5a - 5\sin 3a + 10s. \\
32 \operatorname{Sin} a^6 &= -\cos 6a + 6\cos 4a - 15\cos 2a + 10. \\
64 \operatorname{Sin} a^7 &= -\sin 7a + 7\sin 5a - 21\sin 3a + 35s.
\end{aligned}$$

&c. &c. &c.

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cos} a &= c. \\
2 \operatorname{Cos} a^2 &= \cos 2a + 1. \\
4 \operatorname{Cos} a^3 &= \cos 3a + 3c. \\
(6.)\quad 8 \operatorname{Cos} a^4 &= \cos 4a + 4\cos 2a + 3. \\
16 \operatorname{Cos} a^5 &= \cos 5a + 5\cos 3a + 10c. \\
32 \operatorname{Cos} a^6 &= \cos 6a + 6\cos 4a + 15\cos 2a + 10. \\
64 \operatorname{Cos} a^7 &= \cos 7a + 7\cos 5a + 21\cos 3a + 35c.
\end{aligned}$$

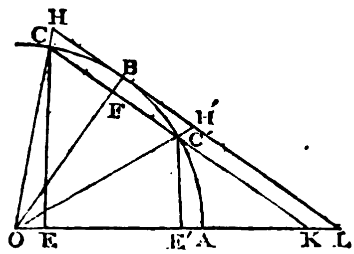
&c. &c. &c.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

The sum of the sines of two arcs is to their difference, as the tangent of half the sum of those arcs to the tangent of half the difference.

If A and B denote two arcs; $sin A + sin B : sin A - sin B :: tan\frac{A+B}{2} : tan\frac{A-B}{2}$.

For, let AC and AC′ be the sum and difference of the arcs AB and BC or BC′; draw the perpendiculars CE and C′E′, extend the chord CC′, and apply at B the parallel tangent HBL, meeting in K and L the diameter produced, and draw OCH, OFB and OC′H′. Because CE



is parallel to C′E′, and CK to HL, CE : C′E′ :: CK : C′K (VI. 2. El.) HL : H′L; and consequently CE + C′E′ : CE—C′E′ :: HL+H′L : HL—HL′, that is, 2BL : 2BH, or BL : BH. But CE and C′E′ are the sines of the arcs AC and AC′, and BL and BH are the tangents of AB and BC, or of half the sum and half the difference of those arcs. Wherefore $sin AC + sin AC' : sin AC - sin AC' :: tan\frac{AC+AC'}{2} : tan\frac{AC-AC'}{2}$.

Cor. 1. The sines of the sum and difference of two arcs are proportional to the sum and difference of their tangents. For CE : C′E′ :: HL or BL+BH : H′L or BL—BH; that is, resuming the general notation, $sin(A+B : sin(A-B) :: tan A + tan B : tan A - tan B$.

Cor. 2. Let the greater arc be equal to a quadrant; and $R + sin B : R - sin B :: tan(45° + \frac{1}{2}B) : tan\ (45° - \frac{1}{2}B)$ or $cot(45° + B.)$ But, the radius being a mean proportional between the tangent and cotangent of any arc, and the cosine of an arc being a mean proportional between the

sum and difference of the radius and the sine, it follows that $R+sin\mathrm{B} : cos\mathrm{B} :: R : tan(45^\circ-\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})$, and $R-sin\mathrm{B} : cos\mathrm{B}$, or $cos\mathrm{B} : R+sin\mathrm{B} :: R : tan(45^\circ+\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B}.)$

Or if, instead of B, there be substituted its complement, these analogies will become $R+cos\mathrm{B} : sin\mathrm{B} :: R : tan\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B}$, and $R-cos\mathrm{B} : sin\mathrm{B} :: R : cot\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B}$.

Cor. 3. Since $cos\mathrm{B} : R :: R-sin\mathrm{B} : tan(45^\circ-\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})$, and $cos\mathrm{B} : R :: R+sin\mathrm{B} : tan(45^\circ+\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})$, therefore (VI. 19. El.) $cos\mathrm{B} : R :: 2R : tan(45^\circ-\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})+tan(45^\circ+\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})$; that is, supposing B to be the complement of 2C, $sin2\mathrm{C} : 2R :: R : tan\mathrm{C}+cot\mathrm{C}$. But (Prop. 1. cor. 1.) $R.sin2\mathrm{C}=2cos\mathrm{C}.sin\mathrm{C}$, and consequently $cos\mathrm{C}.sin\mathrm{C} : R^2 :: R : tan\mathrm{C}+cot\mathrm{C}$.

Cor. 4. Since (4 cor. def.) $cos\mathrm{B} : R :: R : sec\mathrm{B}$, and (3 cor. def.) $cos\mathrm{B} : sin\mathrm{B} :: R : tan\mathrm{B}$, therefore $cos\mathrm{B} : R+sin\mathrm{B} :: R : tan\mathrm{B}+sec\mathrm{B}$, and consequently (2. cor. def.) $tan(45^\circ+\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{B})=tan\mathrm{B}+sec\mathrm{B}$.—This also appears clearly from the figure, on supposing OH′ = H′L′, or the angle LOH′ equal to OLH′, and consequently the arc AC′ equal to the complement of AB.

PROP. V. THEOR.

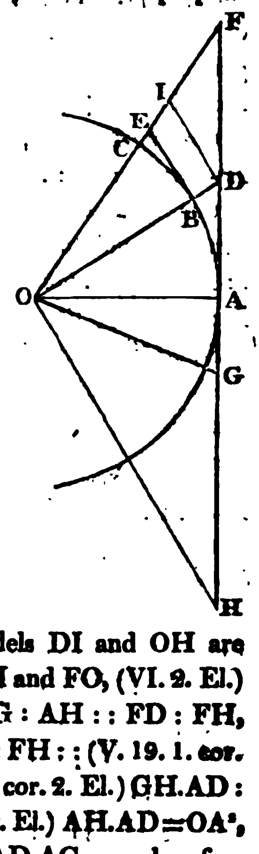
As the difference of the square of the radius and the rectangle under the tangents of two arcs, is to the square of the radius, so is the sum of their tangents, to the tangent of the sum of the arcs.

Let A and B denote any two arcs; then,

$R^2-tan\mathrm{A}.tan\mathrm{B} : R^2 :: tan\mathrm{A}+tan\mathrm{B} : tan(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}.)$

In reference to a diagram, let AB and BC be the two arcs, AD and BE their tangents, and AF consequently the tangent of their sum HC. From the centre O, draw

to meet the extension of this tangent, draw OH perpendicular to OD and OG making the angle AOG equal to BOC; and from D draw DI parallel to BE, or (I. 23. El.) OH.



The triangle AOG must evidently be equal (I. 20. El.) to BOE, and therefore AG is equal to BE. The parallels BE and DI cut the diverging lines OD and OI, and therefore (VI. 2. El.) BE or AG : DI : : OB or OA : OD; but the right angled triangle DOH being (VI. 15. El.) divided by the perpendicular OA into similar triangles, OA : OD : : AH : OH, and consequently AG : DI : : AH : OH, or by alternation AG : AH : : DI : OH. Again, since the parallels DI and OH are intercepted by the diverging lines FH and FO, (VI. 2. El.) DI : OH : : FD : FH; whence AG : AH : : FD : FH, and (V. 10. El.) GH : AH : : DH : FH : : (V. 19. 1. cor. El.) DG : AF. Consequently (V. 25. cor. 2. El.) GH.AD : AH.AD : : DG : AF; but (VI. 15. cor. El.) $AH.AD = OA^2$, and hence $GH.AD = OA^2 - AD.AG$; wherefore $OA^2 - AD.BE : OA^2$: : DG : AF. Now OA is the radius, AD and BE are the tangents of the arcs AB and BC, DG being their sum, and AF is the tangent of the compound arc AC; the proposition is therefore established.

Cor. 1. Hence it follows, by changing the position of the figure;—That the sum of the square of the radius, and,

the rectangle under the tangents of two arcs, is to the square of the radius, as the difference of their tangents is to the tangent of the difference of the arcs. If A and B denote the two arcs, then $R^2+tan\ A tan\ B : R^2 :: tan\ A - tan\ B : tan(A-B.)$

Cor. 2. Let the two arcs be equal; and
$R^2 - tan A^2 : R^2 :: 2 tan A : tan 2A.$

Cor. 3. Let the greater arc contain 45°, whose tangent is equal to the radius, then $R^2 \mp R.tan B : R^2 :: R \pm tan\ B : tan(45° \pm B)$, or $R \mp tan\ B : R \pm tan B :: R : tan(45° \pm B)$.

Scholium. Assuming the radius equal to unit, expressions are hence easily derived for the tangents of multiple arcs. Let t denote the tangent of an arc a; then, by the proposition,

$1-t^2 : 1 :: 2t : tan2a = \frac{2t}{1-t^2}$ and $1-t.\frac{2t}{1-t^2} : 1 :: t+\frac{2t}{1-t^2} :$ $tan3a = \frac{3t-t^3}{1-3t^2}$. In like manner, it will be found that

$$Tan\ 4a = \frac{4t-4t^3}{1-6t^2+t^4}.$$

$$(7.)\ Tan\ 5a = \frac{5t-10t^3+t^5}{1-10t^2+5t^4}.$$

$$Tan\ 6a = \frac{6t-20t^3+6t^5}{1-15t^2+15t^4-t^6}.$$

&c. &c. &c.

These *formulæ* might also be derived from expressions for the sine and cosine of the multiple arc which involve the powers of the tangent. Thus, from (1), $sin2a = 2cs = c^2\left(2\frac{c}{s}\right) = c^2.2t$, and $sin3a = 4c^2s - s = 3c^2s - (1-c^2)s = c^3\left(\frac{3s}{c} - \frac{s^3}{c^3}\right) = c^3(3t-t^3)$; again, from (2), $cos2a = 2c^2 - 1 =$

$c^2 - s^2 = c^2\left(1 - \frac{s^2}{c^2}\right) = c^2(1 - t^2)$, and $\cos 3a = 4c^3 - 3c = c^3 - 3c(1 - c^2) = c^3\left(1 - 3\frac{s^2}{c^2}\right) = c^3(1 - 3t^2)$. In this way, the following tables are formed:

$$\text{(8.)}\quad \begin{aligned} \sin 2a &= c^2 . 2t. \\ \sin 3a &= c^3(3t - t^3.) \\ \sin 4a &= c^4(4t - 4t^3). \\ \sin 5a &= c^5(5t - 10t^3 + t^5. \\ \sin 6a &= c^6(6t - 20t^3 + 6t^5). \end{aligned}$$

&c. &c. &c.

$$\text{(9.)}\quad \begin{aligned} \cos 2a &= c^2(1 - t^2). \\ \cos 3a &= c^3(1 - 3t^2). \\ \cos 4a &= c^4(1 - 6t^2 + t^4). \\ \cos 5a &= c^5(1 - 10t^2 + 5t^4). \\ \cos 6a &= c^6(1 - 15t^2 + 15t^4 - t^6). \end{aligned}$$

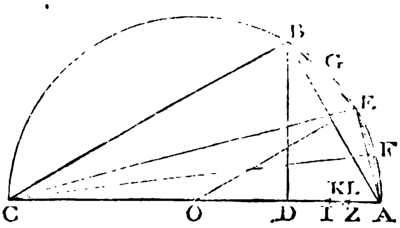
&c. &c. &c.

The first set of expressions being divided by the second, will evidently give the same results for the tangent of the multiple arc.

PROP. VI. THEOR.

The supplemental chord of half an arc, is a mean proportional between the radius, and the sum of the diameter and the supplemental chord of the whole arc.

This property, which is only a modification of cor. 2. to Pr. 2. will admit of a more direct demonstration. For draw the chord AB, the semichords AE and BE, and the supplemental chords CB and CE, and the radius OE. The isosceles triangles AEB and COE are similar, for the angles OCE and EAB at the base stand on equal arcs AE and EB; consequently AE : AB : : CO : CE. But, ACBE being a quadrilateral figure contained in a circle, CE.AB = AE.CB + EB.CA = AE (CA + CB), or AE : AB : : CE : CA + CB; wherefore CO : CE : : CE : CA + CB, or $CE^2 = CA\left(\frac{CA+CB}{2}\right)$.

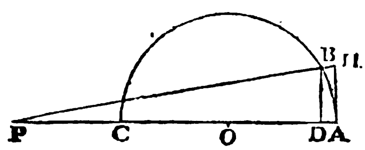


Cor. Hence, in small arcs, the ratio of the sine to the arc approaches that of equality. For, let the semi-arcs AE and EB be again bisected in the points F and G; and, continuing such subdivision indefinitely, let the successive intermediate chords be drawn. The ratio of the sine BD to the arc AB may be viewed as compounded of the ratio of BD to the chord AB, of this chord to the two chords AE and EB, of these chords again to the four chords AF, FE, EG, and GB, and so forth. But those ratios, it has been shown, are the same respectively as the ratios of the supplemental chords CB, CE, CF, &c. to the diameter CA. And since each of the ratios CB : CA, CE : CA, CF : CA, &c. approaches to equality, it is evident that their compounded ratio, or that of the sine to its corresponding arc, must also approach to equality.

Scholium. Hence the ratio of the sine BD to the arc AB is expressed numerically, by the ratio of the continued product of the series of supplemental chords CB, CE, CF, &c. to the relative continued power of the diameter CA. The ratio may, therefore, be determined to any degree of exactness, by the repeated application of the proposition in computing those derivative chords. But a very convenient approximation is more readily assigned. Make CD to CI as CB to CA, CI to CK as CE to CA, CK to CL as CF to CA, and so forth, the sections at I, K, L, &c. tending always towards the limit Z; then the ratio of CD to CZ, being compounded of those ratios, must express the ratio of the sine BD to its corresponding arc AB. Now CD : CB : : CB : CA; consequently, CI=CB, and CD : CI : : CI : CA, or the point I nearly bisects DA. Again, $CE^2=CA\left(\frac{CA+CB}{2}\right)$, and therefore CE differs from CA, by nearly the fourth part of the difference between CB and CA. These differences being small in comparison of the quantities themselves, the series of supplemental chords may be considered as forming a regular progression, each succeeding term of which approaches four times nearer to the length of the diameter. Wherefore $IK=\frac{1}{4}DI$, $KL=\frac{1}{4}IK$, and so continually. But (V. 21. El.) as the difference between the first and second term, is to the first, so is the difference between the first and last term, or DI itself, to the sum of all the terms, or the extreme limit DZ; that is, 3 : 4 : : DI : DZ; and consequently $DZ=\frac{2}{3}DA$. The ratio of the sine BD to the arc AB is, therefore, nearly that of CD to $CD+\frac{2}{3}DA$, or of 3CD to CD+2CA.

This approximation may be differently modified. Since $3CD=6OA-3DA$, and $CD+2AC=6OA-DA$, it follows that BD is to AB, as $6OA-3DA$ to $6OA-DA$. But this ratio, which approaches to equality, will not be sensibly affected, by annexing or taking away equal small differences. Whence the sine is to the arc, as $6OA-6DA$ to $6OA-4DA$, or $3OD$ to $OA+2OD$. But OD is to OA, as the sine of AB is to its tangent; and consequently the triple of that arc is equal to its tangent together with twice its sine.

Again, both terms of the ratio increased by the minute difference DA become $6OA-2DA$, and $6OA$; wherefore BD is to AB, as $3OA-DA$ to $3OA$, or as $2OC+OD$ to $3CO$. Hence, if the extension CP be made equal to the radius CO, and PBH be drawn to meet the tangent, the



arc AB will be nearly equal to the intercepted portion AH. For $BD : AH :: PD : PA$, or $2OC+OD : 3OC$; that is, as the sine BD is to its arc AB.

Another approximation, of much higher importance, may be hence derived; for $PD : PA :: BD : AH$, or as the sine to its arc nearly. But (V. 3. El.) PD.CD is to PA.CD in the same ratio, and $PA.CD=PD.CD+AD.CD=$ (III. 26. cor. 1.) $PD.CD+BD^2$; whence PD.CD is to $PD.CD+BD^2$, as the sine to its arc nearly. If the arc be small, it is evident that OD will be very nearly equal to AO, and consequently PD may be assumed equal to 3AO, and CD equal to 2AO. Wherefore $6AO^2 : 6AO^2+BD^2 :: BD : AB$ nearly; or, the radius being unit, and a and s denoting a small arc and its

sine, $6 : 6+s^2 :: s : a$, and hence $a = s + \frac{s^3}{6}$ nearly. But since a and s are very small, a^3 will approach extremely near to s^3, and it may, therefore, be inferred conversely, that $s = a - \frac{a^3}{6}$.

A convenient approximation for the versed sine of an arc is easily derived from the fundamental property of the lines themselves; for $2AO.AD = AB^2 = BD^2 + AD^2$, or employing v to denote the versed sine, $2v = s^2 + v^2$; and $v = \frac{s^2}{2} + \frac{v^2}{2}$. If, therefore, the arc be small, it may be sufficiently near the truth to reject $\frac{v^2}{2}$ and assume $v = \frac{s^2}{2}$; but should greater accuracy be required, substitute this value of v in the second term of the complete expression, and $v = \frac{s^2}{2} + \frac{s^4}{8}$, which will form a very close approximation.

Calculation of the Trignometrical Lines.

The preceding theorems contain all the principles required for constructing Trigonometrical Tables. The radius being denoted by unit, the several lines connected with the circle are referred to this standard, and are generally computed to seven decimal places.

The first object is to compute the SINES for every arc of the quadrant.

Since the semicircumference of a circle whose radius is unit was found, by the scholium to Prop. 30. Book VI. of the Elements, to be 3.1415926536, the length of the arc of

one minute is the 180^{th} part of this number again subdivided by 60, or .0002909, which, in so small an arc, may be assumed as equal to the sine, and consequently the versed sine of a minute $= \frac{1}{2}(.0002909)^2 = .000000042308$. Whence, by cor. 3. to Prop. 3. $sin(A + 1') = 2sinA - 2sinA \times .000000042308 - sin(A - 1')$; and therefore, by a series of repeated operations, the intermediate arc being successively 1′, 2′, 3′, 4′, &c. the sines of 2′, 3′, 4′, 5′, &c. in their order will be calculated.

The numbers thus obtained will at first scarcely differ from an uniform progression, the versed sine of 1′, which forms the multiplier of deviation, being so extremely small. It is hence superfluous to compute rigidly all those minute variations. The labour may be greatly shortened, by calculating the sines for each degree only, and employing some abridged process for filling up the sines, corresponding to the subdivision in minutes.

The arc of one degree being equal to .0174533, it follows from the scholium to Prop. 6., that the sine of $1° = .0174533 - \frac{1}{6}(.0174533)^3 = .0174524$, and hence the versed sine of $1° = \frac{1}{2}(.0174524)^2 = .0001523$. Wherefore $sin(A + 1°) = 2sinA - 2sinA \times .0001523 - sin(A - 1°)$; or, *if from twice the sine of any arc, diminished by its* 6566^{th} *part, or by its product into* .0001523, *the sine of an arc one degree lower be subtracted, the remainder will exhibit the sine of an arc which is one degree higher.* Thus,

$Sin 2° = 2sin1 - 2sin1 \times .0001523 = .0349048 - .0000053$
$= .0348995.$

$Sin 3° = 2sin2° - 2sin2° \times .0001523 - sin1° = .0697990 -$
$.0000106 - .0174524 = .0523360.$

$Sin 4° = 2sin3° - 2sin3° \times .0001523 - sin2° = .1046720 -$
$.0000160 - .0348995. = 0697565.$

After this manner, the sine for each degree is computed in succession.

But the sines may be found, independently of the previous quadrature of the circle. Assuming an arc whose chord is already known, it is easy, from Prop. 6. to determine the successive chords and supplemental chords of its continued bisection. Let that arc be 60°; its chord is equal to the radius, and (IV. 17. cor. 2.) its supplemental chord $= \sqrt{3} = 1.7320508076$. Whence the supplemental chord of 30° $= \sqrt{(2+1.7320508076)} = 1.9318516525$. In this way, by continued extractions, the supplemental chords of 15°, 7° 30′, 3° 45′, and 1° 52′½ are successively computed, the last one being equal to 1.9997322758. Again, the chords themselves are deduced by a series of analogies; for 1.9318516525 : 1 :: 1 : .51763809004=chord of 30°, and so repeatedly, till the chord of 1° 52′½, which is .0327234633. Hence, taking the halves of those numbers, the sine of $56'\frac{1}{4} = .0163617317$ and the cosine of $56'\frac{1}{4} = 9998661379$, and therefore (cor. 3. defin.) the tangent of that arc is .0163639215; consequently the arc itself $\frac{1}{3}(2 \times .0163617317 + .0163639215) = .0163624616$, and thence the length of the arc of a minute is .0002908882086. Wherefore the sine of $1' = .0002908882 - \frac{1}{6}(.0002908882)^3$ $= .000290888826046$, and the versed sine of $1' =$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}(.000290888826046)^2 = 000000042308.$$

Employing these data, therefore,

$Sin 2' = 2 sin 1' - 2 sin 1' \times .000000042308 = .0005817763845$;

$Sin 3' = 2 sin 2' - 2 sin 2' \times .000000042308 - sin 1' =$

$.0008726645152$; and so forth.

But it is very seldom requisite to push the estimation to such extreme nicety. The sines being calculated for each degree, those corresponding to the subdivision in

minutes, may be found by a more expeditious method, founded on the theory of approximations. If the sines increased uniformly, the sine of $A^\circ + n'$ would exceed that of A by the quantity $\frac{n'}{120}(sin\, \overline{A+1^\circ} - sin\, \overline{A-1^\circ}) = B$. But the rate of this augmentation, being continually retarded, occasions a defect, equal to $n'^2 \times sin A \times .000000042308 = C$. Again, since the retardation itself gradually relaxes, it requires a small compensation, which may be estimated at $(60' - n')B \times .0000013 = D$. The sine of $A^\circ + n'$ is then very nearly $= sin A + B - C + D$. Thus, the sines of 31°, 32°, and 33° being respectively .5150381, .5299193, and .5446390, let it be required to find the sine of 32° 40′.

Here $B = \frac{40}{120}\left(sin 33^\circ - sin 31^\circ\right) = .0098670$,

$C = 1600 \times sin 32 \times .0000000423 = .0000359$,

and $D = 20 \times .0098670 \times .0000013 = .0000003$.

Whence $sin 32^\circ\ 40' = .5299193 + .0098670 - .0000359 + .0000003 = .5397507$.

After the sines are calculated up to 60°, the rest are deduced from cor. 4. Prop. 3. by simple addition. Thus, $sin 61^\circ = sin 59^\circ + sin 1^\circ = .8571673 + .0174524 = .8746197$.

The Versed Sines and supplementary versed sines are only the difference and sum of the radius and the sines.

The Tangents are easily derived from the sines, by help of the analogy given in the third corollary to the definitions. Thus, $cos 32^\circ : sin 32 : : R : tan 32^\circ$, or, $.8480481 : .5299193 : : 1 : .6248694 = tan 32$. Beyond 45°, the calculation is simplified, since the radius (cor. 7. defin.) is a mean proportional between the tangent and cotangent, or the cotangent is the reciprocal of the tangent.

The SECANTS are deduced by cor. 4. to the definitions, since they are the reciprocals of the cosines.

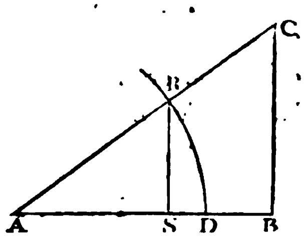
From the lower tangents and secants, the tangents of arcs that exceed 45° are most easily derived; for (cor. 4. Prop. 4.) $tan(45° + a) = sec2a + tan2a$. Thus, $tan46° = sec2° + tan2°$ or $1.0355303 = 1.0006095 + .0349208$.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

In a right angled triangle, the radius is to the sine of an oblique angle, as the hypotenuse to the opposite side.

Let the triangle ABC be right angled at B; then $R : sin$CAB : : AC : CB.

For, in the base AB, assume AR equal to the given radius, describe the arc RD, and let fall the perpendicular RS. The triangles ARS and ACB are evidently similar, and therefore AR : RS : : AC : CB. But, AR being the radius, RS is the sine of



the arc RD which measures the angle RAD or CAB; and consequently $R : sin$A : : AC : CB.

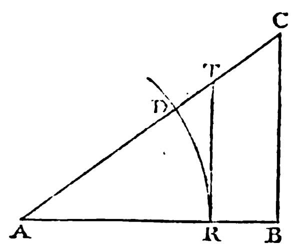
Cor. Hence the radius is to the cosine of an angle, as the hypotenuse to the adjacent side; for R : *sin* C or *cos*A : : AC : AB.

PROP. VIII. THEOR.

In a right angled triangle, the radius is to the tangent of an oblique angle, as the adjacent side to the opposite side.

Let the triangle ABC be right angled at B; then $R : tan\text{BAC} : : \text{AB} : \text{BC}$.

For, assuming AR as before equal to the given radius, describe the arc RD, and erect the perpendicular RT. The triangles ART and ABC being similar, AR : RT : : AB : BC. But, AR being the radius, RT is the tangent of the arc RD which measures the angle at A; and therefore $R : tan\text{A} : : \text{AB} : \text{BC}$.



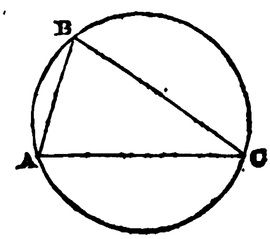
Cor. Hence the radius is to the secant of an angle, as the adjacent side to the hypotenuse. For AT is the secant of the arc RD, or of the angle at A; and, from similar triangles, AR : AT : : AB : AC.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

The sides of any triangle are as the sines of their opposite angles.

In the triangle ABC, the side AB is to BC, as the sine of the angle at C to the sine of that at A.

For let a circle be described about the triangle; and the sides AB and BC, being chords of the intercepted arcs or of the angles at the centre, are (cor. def.) equal to twice the sines of the halves of those angles, or the angles ACB and CAB at the circumference. But, of the same angles, the chords or sines (VI. 11. cor. El.) are proportional to the radius; and consequently AB : BC : : *sin*C : *sin*A.



Cor. Since the straight lines AB and BC are chords, not only of the arcs AB and BC, but of the arcs ACB and BAC, or the defects of the former from the circumference, it follows that the sides of the triangle are proportional also to the sines of half these compound arcs, or to the sines of the supplements of their opposite angles. A like inference results from the definition, for the sine of an arc and that of its supplement are the same.

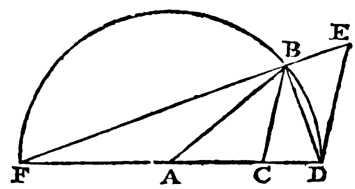
PROP. X. THEOR.

In any triangle, the sum of two sides is to the difference, as the tangent of half the sum of the angles at the base, to the tangent of half their difference.

In the triangle ABC,

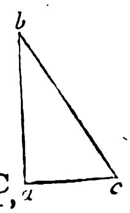
$$AB+AC : AB-AC : : \tan\frac{C+B}{2} : \tan\frac{C-B}{2}.$$

From the vertex A, with a distance equal to the greater side AB, describe the semicircle FBD, meeting the other side AC extended both ways to F and D, join BD and BF, and produce the latter to meet a straight line DE drawn parallel to CB.



Because the isosceles triangle DAB, has the same vertical angle with the proposed triangle CAB, each of its remaining angles ADB and ABD is (I. 30. El.) equal to half the sum of the angles ACB and ABC; and therefore the defect of ABC from that mean, that is the angle CBD, or its alternate angle BDE, must be equal to half the difference of those angles. Now FBD being (III. 19. El.) a right angle, BF and BE are tangents of the angles BDF and BDE, to the radius DB, and hence are proportional to the tangents of those angles with any other radius. But since CB and DE are parallel, CF or AB+AC : CD or AB—AC : : BF : BE; consequently $AB+AC : AB-AC :: tan\frac{ACB+ABC}{2} : tan\frac{ACB-ABC}{2}$, or $AB+AC : AB-AC :: cot\frac{1}{2}A : cot(B+\frac{1}{2}A)$, or $-cot(C+\frac{1}{2}A.)$

Cor. Suppose another triangle *abc* to have the sides *ab* and *ac* equal to AB and AC, but containing a right angle: It is obvious that $tan\frac{c+b}{2} : tan\frac{c-b}{2} :: tan\frac{ACB+ABC}{2} : tan\frac{ACB-ABC}{2}$, or $R : tan(45°-b) :: tan\frac{ACB+ABC}{2} : tan\frac{ACB-ABC}{2}$,

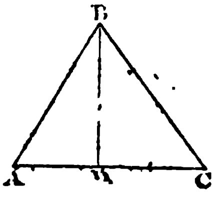


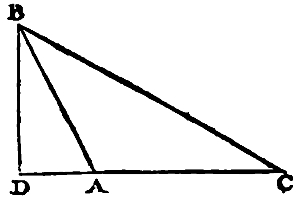
that is,
R : *tan*(45—*b*) : : *cot* ½ A : *cot*(B + ½A), or—*cot*(C + ½A).
Now, in the right angled triangle *abc*, the base *ab* or AB, is to the perpendicular *ac*, or AC, as the radius, to the tangent of the angle at *b*.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

In any triangle, as twice the rectangle under two sides, is to the difference between their squares and the square of the base, so is the radius to the cosine of the contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, 2AB.AC : $AB^2+AC^2-BC^2$: : R : *cos*BAC; the angle BAC being acute or obtuse, according as BC^2 is less or greater than AB^2+AC^2.





For let fall the perpendicular BD. In the right angled triangle ADB, AB : AD : : R : *sin*ABD or *cos*BAC; consequently, by taking like multiples, 2AB.AC : 2AD.AC : : R : *cos*BAC. But (II. 23. El.) twice the rectangle under AD and AC is equal to the difference of the squares AB and AC from the square of BC. Whence 2AB.AC : $AB^2+AC^2-BC^2$: : R : *cos*BAC.

Cor. The radius being denoted by unit, it follows (V. 6. El.) that $AB^2+AC^2-BC^2=2AB.AC.\cos BAC$, and consequently $BC^2=AB^2+AC^2-2AB.AC.\cos BAC$, or $BC=\sqrt{(AB^2+AC^2-2AB.AC.\cos BAC)}$.

PROP. XII. THEOR.

In any triangle, the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, is to the rectangle under its excesses above the two sides, as the square of the radius, to the square of the tangent of half the contained angle.

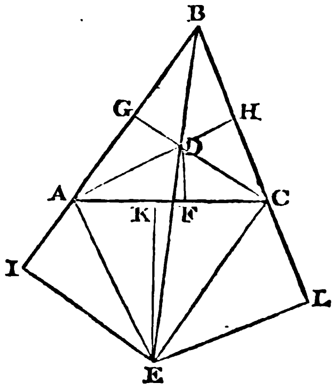
In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being denoted by P, $\frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P—AC) : (\frac{1}{2}P—AB)(\frac{1}{2}P—BC) :: R^2 : tan\ \frac{1}{2}B^2$.

For employing the construction of Prop. 29. Book VI. of the Elements; since the triangles BIE and BGD are right angled, BI : IE :: R : *tan*IBE, or *tan*$\frac{1}{2}$B,

and BG : GD :: R : *tan*GBD, or *tan*$\frac{1}{2}$B;

whence (V. 22. El.) BI.BG : IE.GD :: R^2 : *tan*$\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

But it was proved that IE.GD=AI.AG; wherefore BI.BG : AI.AG :: R^2 : tan$\frac{1}{2}B^2$. Now BI is equal to the semiperimeter, BG is its excess above the base AC, and AI, AG are its excesses above the sides AB and BC; consequently the proportion is established.



PROP. XIII. THEOR.

In any triangle, the rectangle under two sides, is to the rectangle under the semiperimeter, and its excess above the base, as the square of the radius, to the square of the cosine of half the contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being denoted by P, $AB.BC : \frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P-AC) :: R^2 : cos\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

For, the same construction remaining; in the right-angled triangles BIE and BGD,

$$BE : BI :: R : sinBEI, \text{ or } cos\tfrac{1}{2}B,$$
$$\text{and } BD : BG :: R : sinBDG, \text{ or } cos\tfrac{1}{2}B;$$
$$\text{whence } BE.BD : BI.BG :: R^2 : cos\tfrac{1}{2}B^2.$$

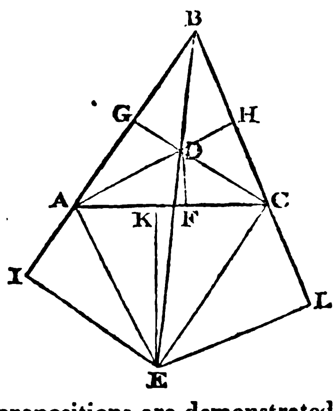
But the quadrilateral figure EADC, being right angled at A and C, is (III. 17. El.) contained in a circle, and consequently (III. 16. El.) the angle AED or AEB is equal to ACD or to DCB; wherefore, since by construction the angle ABE is equal to DBC, the triangles BAE and BDC are similar, and $BE : AB :: BC : BD$, or $BE.BD = AB.BC$. Hence $AB.BC : BI.BG :: R^2 : cos\frac{1}{2}B^2$. Now BI is the semiperimeter, and BG its excess above IG or AC; wherefore the proposition is demonstrated.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

In any triangle, as the rectangle under two sides is to the rectangle under the excesses of the semi-perimeter above those sides, so is the square of the radius, to the square of the sine of half their contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being still denoted by P, AB.BC : ($\frac{1}{2}$P—AB) ($\frac{1}{2}$P—BC) : : R^2 : $sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

For, the same construction being retained, in the right-angled triangles BIE and BGD, BE : IE : : R : $sin\frac{1}{2}$B,
and BD : GD : : R : $sin\frac{1}{2}$B;
whence BE.BD : IE.GD : : R^2 : $sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$.



But it has been proved that BE.BD=AB.BC, or the rectangle under the containing sides of the triangle; and IE.GD=AI.AG, or the rectangle under the excesses of the semiperimeter above the sides AB and BC. Wherefore the proposition is established.

Scholium. The three last propositions are demonstrated here by an independent process; but they are only modifications of the same principle, and might consequently be derived from a comparison with the first of the train.

The eight preceding theorems contain the grounds of trigonometrical calculation. A triangle has only five va-

riable parts—the three sides and two angles, the remaining angle being merely supplemental. Now, it is a general principle, that, three of those parts being given, the rest may be thence determined. But the right-angled triangle has necessarily one known angle; and, consequently, the opposite side is deducible from the containing sides. In right-angled triangles, therefore, the number of parts is reduced to four, any two of which being the assigned, the others may be found.

PROP. XV. PROB.

Two variable parts of a right-angled triangle being given, to find the rest.

This problem divides itself into four distinct cases, according to the different combination of the data.

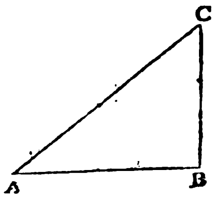
1. *When the hypotenuse and a side are given.*

2. *When the two sides containing the right angle are given.*

3. *When the hypotenuse and an angle are given.*

4. *When either of the sides and an angle are given.*

The first and third cases are solved by the application of Proposition 7, and the second and fourth cases receive their solution from Proposition 8. It may be proper, however, to exhibit the several analogies in a tabular form.



Case.	Given.	Sought.	SOLUTION.
I.	AC, AB,	A, or C, BC,	AC : AB : : R : *sin*C, or *cos*A. R : *sin*A : : AC : BC.
II.	AB, BC,	A, or C AC,	AB : BC : R : *tan*A, or *cot* C *cos*A : R : : AB : AC, or R : *sec*A : : AB : AC
III.	AC, A,	AB, BC,	R : *cos*A : : AC : AB. R : *sin*A : : AC : BC.
IV.	AB, A,	BC, AC	R : *tan*A : : AB : BC. *cos*A : R : : AB : AC, or R : *sec*A : : AB : AC.

In the first and second cases, BC or AC might also be deduced, by the mere application of Prop. 11. Book II. of the Elements:

For $AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$, or $AC = \sqrt{(AB^2+BC^2)}$, and $BC^2 = AC^2 - AB^2 = (AC+AB)(AC-AB)$, or $BC = \sqrt{(AC+AB)(AC-AB)}$.

Cor. Hence the first case admits of a simple approximation. For, by the scholium to Proposition 6, it appears, that, AC being made the radius, 2AC+AB is to 3AC, as the side BC is to the arc which measures its opposite angle CAB, or alternately 2AC+AB is to BC, as 3AC to the

arc corresponding to BC. But the radius is equal to an arc of $57^{\circ}\ 17'\ 44''\ 48'''$, or $57\frac{1}{3}^{\circ}$ nearly; wherefore 3AC is to the arc which corresponds to BC, as $3 \times 57\frac{1}{3}^{\circ}$, or 172°, to the number of degrees contained in the angle CAB, and consequently, $2AC + AB : BC :: 172^{\circ}$: the expression of the angle at A, or $AC + \frac{1}{2}AB : BC :: 86^{\circ}$: number of degrees in the angle at A.

This approximation will be the more correct, when the side opposite to the required angle becomes small in comparison with the hypotenuse; but the quantity of error can never amount to 4 minutes.

PROP. XVI. PROB.

Three variable parts of an oblique angled triangle being given, to find the other two.

This general problem includes three distinct cases, one of which again is branched into two subordinate divisions.

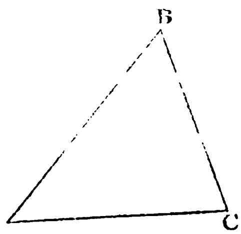
1. *When all the three sides are given.*

2. *When two sides and an angle are given; which angle may either* (1.) *be contained by these sides, or* (2.) *subtended by one of them.*

3. *When a side and two of the angles are given.*

The first case admits of four different solutions, derived from Propositions 11, 12, 13, and 14, and which have their several advantages. The second case, consisting of

two branches, is resolved by the application of propositions 9 and 10; and the resolution of the third case flows immediately from the former of these propositions.



Case.		Given.	Sought.	SOLUTION.	
I.		AB, BC, and AC.	B.	$AB.BC : (\frac{1}{2}P-AB)(\frac{1}{2}P-BC) :: R^2 : \sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$ $\frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P-AC) : (\frac{1}{2}P-AB)(\frac{1}{2}P-BC) :: R^2 : \tan\frac{1}{2}B^2$ $AB.BC : \frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P-AC) :: R^2 : \cos\frac{1}{2}B^2$ $2AB.BC : AB^2+BC^2-AC^2 :: R : \cos B.$	1 2 3 4
II.	1	AB, BC, and C.	A and AC,	$AB : BC :: \sin C : \sin A$; whence B, and $\sin C : \sin B :: AB : AC$	5 6
	2	AB, BC, and B.	A, or C, and AC.	$AB+BC : AB-BC :: \cot\frac{1}{2}B : \cot(A+\frac{1}{2}B)$, or $-\cot(C+\frac{1}{2}B)$. $\begin{cases} AB : BC :: R : \tan b; \text{ and} \\ R : \tan(45^\circ-b) :: \cot\frac{1}{2}B : \cot(A+\frac{1}{2}B), \\ \text{or } -\cot(C+\frac{1}{2}B). \end{cases}$ $\sin A : \sin B :: BC : AC$, or $AC=\sqrt{(AB^2+BC^2-2AB.BC\cos B.)}$	7 8 9 10
III.		AB, A B, and thence C.	BC, AC.	$\sin C : \sin A :: AB : BC.$ $\sin C : \sin B :: AB : AC.$	11 12

For the resolution of the first Case, the analogy set down first, is on the whole the most convenient, particularly if the angle sought should not be very obtuse. The second analogy may be applied with obvious advantage through the entire extent of angles. The third and fourth analogies, especially the latter, are not adapted for the calculation of very acute angles; they will, however, answer the best when the angle sought is obtuse. It is to be observed, that the cosines of an angle and of its supplement are the same, only placed in opposite directions; and hence the second term of the analogy, or the difference of AB^2+BC^2 from AC^2, is in excess or defect, according as the angle at B is acute or obtuse. These remarks are founded on the unequal variation of the sine and tangent, corresponding to the uniform increase of an arc.

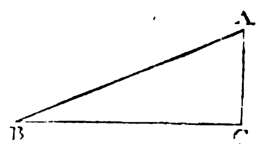
The first part of Case II. is ambiguous, for an arc and its supplement have the same sine. This ambiguity, however, is removed if the character of the triangle, as acute or obtuse, be previously known.

For the solution of the second part of Case II. the first analogy is the most usual, but the double analogy is the best adapted for logarithms. In astronomy, this mode of calculation is particularly commodious. The direct expression for the side subtending the given angle is very convenient, where logarithms are not employed.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

Given the horizontal distance of an object and its angle of elevation, to find its height and absolute distance.

Let the angle ABC, which an object A makes at the station B with an horizontal line, and also the distance BC of the perpendicular AC, to find that perpendicular, and the hypotenusal or aërial distance BA.



In the right angled triangle BCA, the radius is to the tangent of the angle at B, as BC to AC; and the radius is to the secant of the angle at B, or the cosine of the angle at B is to the radius, as BC to AB.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

Given the acclivity of a line, to find its corresponding vertical and horizontal lengths.

In the preceding figure, the angle CBA and the hypotenusal distance BA being given to find the height AC and the horizontal distance BC of the extremity A.

The triangle BCA being right angled, the radius is to the sine of the angle CBA as BA to AC, and the radius is to the cosine of CBA as BA to BC.

Scholium. If the acclivity be small, and A denote the measure of that angle in minutes; then $AC=BA\times\frac{A}{3438}$ nearly. But the expression for AC, will be rendered more accurate, by subtracting from it, as thus found, the quantity $\frac{AC^3}{6BA^2}$.

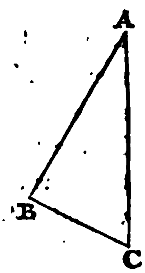
In most cases when CAB is a small angle, the horizontal distance may be computed with sufficient exactness, by deducting $\frac{AC^2}{2BA}$, or $BA\times A^2\times.000,000,0423$, from the hypotenusal distance.

PROP. XIX. PROB.

Given the interval between two stations, and the direction of an object viewed from them, to find its distance from each.

Let BC be given, with the angles ABC and ACB, to calculate AB and AC.

In the triangle CBA, the angles ABC and ACB being given, the remaining or supplemental angle BAC is thence given; and consequently, *sin*BAC : *sin*ACB : : BC : AB, and *sin*BAC : *sin*ABC : : BC : AC.

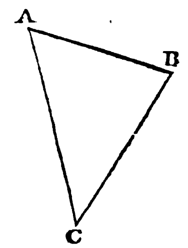


Cor. If the observed angles ABC and ACB be each of them 60°, the triangle will be evidently equilateral; and if the angle at the station B be right, and that at C half a right angle, the distance AB will be equal to the base BC.

PROP. XX. PROB.

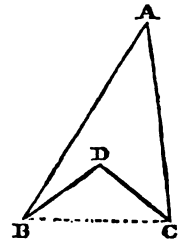
Given the distances of two objects from any station and the angle which they subtend, to find their mutual distance.

Let AC, BC, and the angle ACB be given, to determine AB.



In the triangle ABC, since two sides and their contained angle are given, therefore, by corollary to Proposition 10. $AC + BC : AC - BC :: \cot\frac{1}{2}C : \cot(A+\frac{1}{2}C)$, then $\sin A : \sin C :: BC : AB$; or (from the cor. to Prop. 11.) $AB = \sqrt{(AC^2 + BC^2 - 2AC.BC. \cos C.)}$

Cor. By combining this with the preceding proposition, the distance of an object may be found from two stations, between which the communication is interrupted. Thus, let A be visible from B and C, though the straight line BC cannot be traced. Assume a third station D, from which B and C are both seen. Measure DB and DC, and observe the angles BDC, ABC and ACB. In the triangle BDC, the base BC is found as above; and thence, by the preceding proposition, the sides AB and AC of the triangle ABC are determined.



PROP. XXI. PROB.

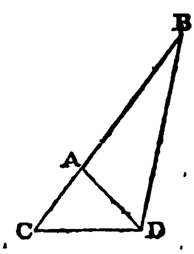
Given the interval between two stations, and the directions of two remote objects viewed from them in the same plane, to find the mutual distance, and relative position of those objects.

Let the points A, B represent the two objects, and C, D the two stations from which these are observed; the interval or base CD being measured, and also the angles CDA, CDB at the first station, and DCA, DCB at the second; it is thence required to determine the transverse distance AB, and its direction.

It is obvious that each of the points A and B would be assigned geometrically by the intersection of two straight lines, and consequently that the position of the objects will not be determined, unless each of them appears in a different direction at the successive stations.

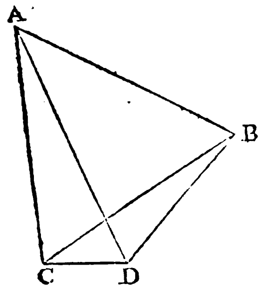
1. *Suppose one of the stations C to lie in the direction of the two objects A and B.*

At C observe the angle BCD, and at D the angles CDA and BDC. Then by Prop. 9. *sin*CAD : *sin*CDA :: CD : CA, and *sin*CBD : *sin*CDB :: CD : CB; the difference or sum of CA and CB is AB, the distance sought.



2. *When neither station lies in the direction of the two objects, and the base CD has a transverse position.*

Find by Prop. 19. the distances AC and BC of both objects from one of the stations C; then the contained angle ACB, or the excess of DCA above DCB, being likewise given, the angles at the base AB of the triangle BCA, and the base itself, may be calculated, from the analogies exhibited for the solution of the second branch of Case second.



For AC+BC : AC—BC : : $cot\frac{1}{2}$ACB : $cot(\frac{1}{2}$ACB+CAB), and thus the angle CAB is found. Or more conveniently by two successive operations, AC : BC : : *R* : *tan b*, and R : *tan*(45°—*b*) : : $cot\frac{1}{2}$ACB : $cot(\frac{1}{2}$ACB+CAB. Now, *sin*CAB : *sin*ACB : : BC : AB, or AB$=\sqrt{}$(AC²+BC²—2AC.BC *cos*ACB).

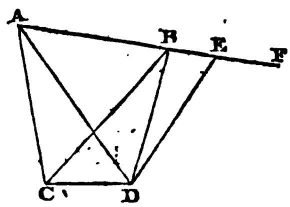
The inclination of AB to CD in the first case is given by observation, and in the second case it is evidently the supplement of the interior angles CAB and DCA. A parallel to AB may hence be drawn from either station.

Cor. Hence the converse of this problem is readily solved. Suppose two remote objects A and B, of which the mutual distance is already known, are observed from the stations C and D, and it were thence required to determine the interval CD. Assume unit to denote CD, and calculate AB according to the same scale of measures; the actual distance AB being then divided by that result, will give CD: For the several triangles which combine to form the quadrilateral figure CABD, are evidently given in species.

PROP. XXII. PROB.

Given the directions of two inaccessible objects viewed in the same plane from two given stations, to trace the extension of the straight line connecting them.

Let the angles ACD, BCD be observed at C, and ADC, BDC at D, with the base CD; to find a point E in the straight line ABF produced through A and B.

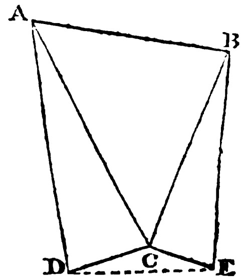


By the last proposition, find AD and the angle DAB, and assume any angle ADE. In the triangle DAE, the angles at the base AD, and consequently the vertical angle AED, being known, it follows, by Prop. 9., that *sin* AED : *sin*EAD : : AD : DE. Wherefore, measure out DE on the ground, and its extremity E will mark the extension of AB.

PROP. XXIII. PROB.

Given on the same plane the direction of two remote objects separately seen from two stations and their direction as viewed at once from an intermediate station, with the distances of those stations, from the middle station,—to find the mutual distance of the objects.

Let object A be visible from the station D, and B from E, and both of them be seen at once from the station C; the compound base DC, CE being measured, and the angle DCA, ACB and BCE, with ADC and BEC, observed,—to determine AB.



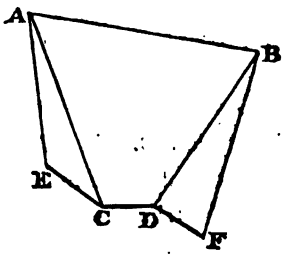
In the triangles DAC, CBE, the sides AC and BC are found by Prop. 19., and in the triangle ACB, the base AB is thence found by the application of Prop. 20.

It is evident that the mode of investigation will not be altered, if the three stations D, C and E should lie in the same straight line.

PROP. XXIV. PROB.

Given four stations, with the direction of a remote object viewed from the first and second stations, and the direction of another remote object viewed from the third and fourth stations, all in the same plane,—to find the distance between the objects.

Let the bases EC, CD, and DF be given, with the angles ECD and CDF, and suppose that at the stations E and C the angles CEA and ECA are observed, and the angles BDF and BFD at D and F; to find the transverse distance AB.



In the triangles EAC and DBF, find, by Prop. 19., the sides AC and BD; and in the triangle CAD, the sides AC, CD, with their contained angle ACD, being given, the base DA and the angle CDA are found by Case II. But the distances DA, DB being now given, with their contained angle ADB, the base AB is found by Prop. 20.

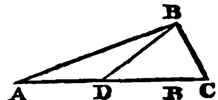
PROP. XXV. PROB.

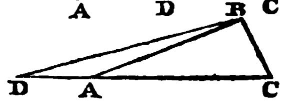
The mutual distances of three remote objects being given, with the angles which they subtend at a station in the same plane, to find the relative place of that station.

Let the three points A, B, and C, and the angles ADB and BDC which they form at a fourth point D, be given; to determine the position of that point.

1. *Suppose the station D to be situate in the direction of two of the objects A, C.*

All the sides AB, AC and BC of the triangle ABC being given, the angle BAC is found by Case I.; and in the triangle ABD, the side AB with the angles at A and D being given, the side AD is found by Case III., and consequently the position of the point D is determined.

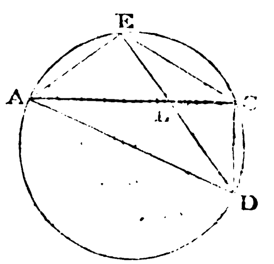




2. *Suppose the three objects A, B and C to lie in the same direction.*

Describe a circle about the extreme objects A, C and the station D, join DA, DB and DC, produce DB to meet the circumference in E, and join AE and CE.

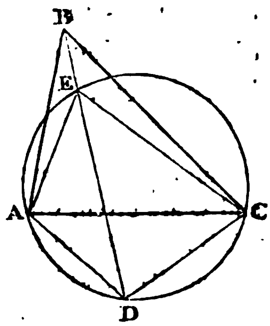
In the triangle AEC, the side AC is given, and the angles EAC and ECA, being equal (III. 16. El.) to CDE and ADE, are consequently given; wherefore the side AE is found by Case III. The triangle AEB, having thus the sides AE, AB, and their contained angle EAB or BDC given, the angle ABE, and its supplement ABD are found by Case II. Lastly, in the triangle ABD, the angles ABD and ADB, with the side AB, are given; whence BD is found by Case III. But since the angle ABD and the distance BD are assigned, the position of the station D is evidently determined.



3. *Let the three objects form a triangle, and the station D lie either without or within it.*

Through D and the extreme points A and C describe a circle, draw DB cutting the circumference in E, and join AE and CE.

1. In the triangle AEC, the side AC, and the angles ACE and CAE, which are equal (III. 16. El.) to ADB and BDC, being given, the side AE is found by Case III.



2. All the sides of the triangle ABC being given, the angle CAB is found by Case I.

3. In the triangle BAE, the sides AB and AE are given, and their contained angle EAB, or the difference of CAE and CAB, are given, whence, by Case II., the angle ABE or ABD is found.

4. Lastly, in the triangle DAB, the side AB and the angles ABD and ADB being given, the side AD or BD is found by Case III., and consequently the position of the point D with respect to A and B is determined. By a like process, the relative position of D and C is deduced; or CD may be calculated by Case II. from the sides AC, AD, and the angle ADC, which are given in the triangle CAD.

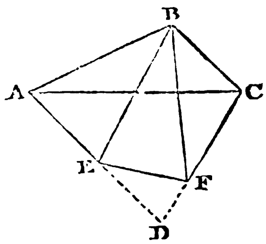
It is obvious that the calculation will fail, if the points B and E should happen to coincide. In fact, the circle then passing through B, any point D whatever in the opposite arc ADC will answer the conditions required, since the angles ADB and BDC, being now in the same segment, must remain unaltered.

PROP. XXVI, THEOR.

The mutual distances of three remote objects, of which only two are seen at once from the same station, being given, with the angles observed at

two stations in the same plane, and the intermediate direction of these stations,—to find their relative places.

Suppose the three points A, B and C are given, with the angle AEB which A and B subtend at E, and BFC, which B and C subtend at F, and likewise the angles AEF and EFC; to find the relative situation of each of those stations E and F.

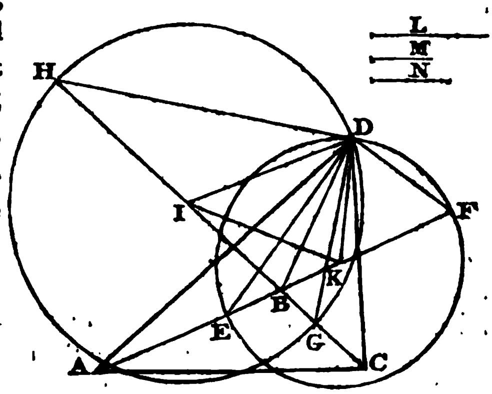


Produce AE and CF to meet in D, and conceive BD to be joined. The angle EDF, being equal to the excess of the exterior angles AEF and CFE above two right angles, is given. Now, in the triangle EBF, *sin*BFE : *sin*EBF : : EB : EF; and in the triangle EDF, *sin*EDF : *sin*DFE : : EF : ED; whence, (V. 23. El.) *sin*BFE.*sin*EDF : *sin*EBF.*sin*DFE : : EB : ED, and consequently the ratio of EB to ED is found. Again, the angle BED, being the supplement of AEB, is given; wherefore (Prop. 10. cor.) *sin*BFE.*sin*EDF : *sin*EBF.*sin*DFE : : R : *tan b*, and R : *tan* (45—*b*) : : *cot*$\frac{1}{2}$BED :—*cot*($\frac{1}{2}$BED + EBD), or *cot*(180° —$\frac{1}{2}$BED—EBD); whence the angle EDB is given. The angles which the three objects A, B, and C subtend at the point D are therefore all given, and hence the position of D is determined by the preceding proposition. But BD, being found, the several distances BE, ED, and BF, FD are thence obtained, and consequently the position of each of the stations E and F is determined.

PROB. XXVII.

Given the angles of elevation at which an object is seen from three known points in a horizontal plane, to find its position and altitude.

Let A, B, and C be the three points of observation, and D the foot of the perpendicular from the given object to the horizontal plane. It is evident from Proposition 17, that the horizontal distances AD, BD and CD are proportional to the co-tangents of the vertical angles at the stations A, B, C; let these co-tangents be respectively denoted by the lines L, M, and N. Divide AB, the base of the triangle ADB, internally and externally, at the points E and F, in the ratio of L to M, and the lines DE and DF joining the vertex D must (VI. 10. cor. El.) bisect internally and externally the angle; whence EDF is a right angle, and (III. 19. El.) contained in a semicircle. In the same manner, divide CB internally and externally at G and H in the ratio of M to G, and on GH describe a semicircle. The point D, being common to both semicircles, must occur in their intersection.



From this construction, the trigonometrical calculation is readily deduced. For L+M : M : : AB : BE, and L—M : M : : AB : BF; whence EF and its half DE, or the radius KE, is found. In like manner, N+M : M : : CB : BG, and N—M : M :: CB : BH; consequently $DI = \frac{BG+BH}{2}$. In the triangle IBK, the sides BI and BK, with their included angle, are given, and therefore (Prop. 10.) the angle BKI and the base IK are found. Again, all the sides of the triangle IDK being given, the angle IKD (Prop. 14.) is found. Hence, in the triangle ADK, the whole angle AKD and its containing sides are given, and therefore the base AD, or the horizontal distance of the object from the station A is found, and consequently its altitude.

It is obvious that the opposite semicircles will, likewise, by their intersection, give, on the other side, a second position for that point. In practice, however, this ambiguity could easily be removed.

If the object be seen at the same elevation from all the three points, the arcs of the circles will evidently merge into tangents which bisect at right angles the sides of the triangle ABC. The projection D of the object on the horizontal plane will then be the centre of the circle circumscribing that triangle, and therefore the radius, or the distance AD, will be found by Prop. 18. Book VI. of the Elements.

If the three points of observation should lie in the same straight line, the centres of the determining circles will likewise occur in that line or its extension, and hence the process of calculation will be greatly abridged.

General Scholium. In all the foregoing problems, the angles on the ground are supposed to be taken by means of

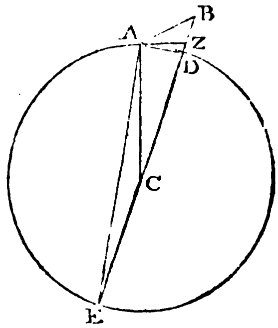
a *theodolite*; which, being adjusted by means of spirit-levels, measures only horizontal and vertical angles, or decomposes other angles into these elements. If the *sextant* or the *repeating circle* be employed for the same purpose, such angles, when oblique, must be reduced by calculation to their projections on the horizontal plane.

In surveying an extensive country, a base is first carefully measured; and the directions of the prominent distant objects being observed from both of its extremities, they are all connected with it by a series of triangles. To avoid, in practice, the multiplication of errors, these triangles should be chosen, as nearly as possible, equilateral. After a similar method, large estates are the most correctly planned and measured; the ordinary practice of carrying the theodolite with a chain merely round the extreme boundary being subject to much inaccuracy.

If the inequality of the surface of the ground will not admit of the measurement of a base of a sufficient length, a smaller one may be selected at first, and another base derived from this, by combining with it one or more triangles. These triangles, to preclude the multiplication of errors, should be as nearly as possible right-angled, and similar, having their sides increasing in a continued proportion. When this rate of increase is not less than the ratio of the radius to the side of an inscribed equilateral triangle, the number of intermediate triangles between the measured and the computed base may be shown to be rather favourable, on the whole, to the accuracy of the result.

The vertical angles employed in the mensuration of heights, since they are estimated from the varying direction of the level or the plummet, must evidently, when the stations are distant, require some correction. Let

the points A and B represent two remote objects, and C their centre of gravitation; with the radius CA describe a circle, draw CB cutting the circumference in D and E, and join EA and AD. The converging lines AC and BC will indicate the direction of the plummet at A and B, the intercepted arc AD will trace the contour of a quiescent fluid, and the tangent AZ, being applied to A, will mark the line of the horizon seen from that station. Wherefore the vertical angle of the remote object B, as observed at A, is only ZAB, which is less than the true angle DAB, by the exterior angle DAZ. But (III. 21. El.) DAZ being equal to the angle



AED in the alternate segment, is (III. 15. El.) equal to half the angle ACD at the centre. Hence the true vertical angle at any station will be found, by adding to the observed angle half the measure of the intercepted arc; and this measure depending on the curvature of the earth, which is neither uniform nor quite regular, must be deduced, for each particular place, from the length of the corresponding degree of latitude.

Such nicety, however, is very seldom required. It will be sufficiently accurate in practice to assume the mean quantities, and to consider the earth as a globe, whose circumference is 24,856 English miles, and its diameter 7,912. The arc of a minute on the meridian being, therefore, equal to 6076 feet, the correction to be added to the observed vertical angle must amount to one second, for every 69 yards contained in the intervening distance.

The quantity of depression ZD below the horizon is

hence easily computed; for (III. 26. El.) $AZ^2 = EZ.ZD$, or very nearly ED.ZD; and, consequently, since the diameter ED is constant, the visual depression of an object is proportional to the square of its distance AZ from the observer. In the space of one mile, this depression will amount to $\frac{5280}{7912}$ parts of a foot; and generally, therefore, it may be expressed in feet, by two-thirds of the square of the distance in miles. Thus, at the distance of twenty miles, the depression is $266\frac{2}{3}$ feet; and at that of fifty miles, it amounts to $1666\frac{2}{3}$, or nearly the third of a mile.

But the effect of the earth's curvature is modified by another cause, arising from optical deception. An object is never seen by us in its true position, but in the direction of the ray of light which conveys the impression. Now the luminous particles, in traversing the atmosphere, are, by the force of superior attraction, refracted or bent continually towards the perpendicular, as they penetrate the lower and denser *strata*; and consequently they describe a curved track, of which the last portion, or its tangent, indicates the apparent elevated situation of a remote point. This trajectory, suffering almost a regular inflexure, may be considered as very nearly an arc of a circle, which has for its radius six times the radius of our globe. Hence, to correct the error occasioned by refraction, it will only be requisite to diminish the effects of the earth's curvature by one-sixth part, or to deduct, from the vertical angles, the twelfth part of the measure of the intervening terrestrial arc. The quantity of horizontal refraction, however, as it depends on the density of the air at the surface, is extremely variable, especially in our unsteady climate.

NOTES

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ILLUSTRATIONS.

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NOTES TO BOOK I.

DEFINITIONS.

1. The primary objects which Geometry contemplates are, from their nature, incapable of decomposition. No wonder that ingenuity has only wasted its efforts to define such elementary notions. It appears more philosophical, therefore, to invert the usual procedure, and endeavour to trace the successive steps by which the mind arrives at the principles of the science. Though no words can paint a simple sound, it may yet be rendered intelligible, by describing the mode of its articulation; and a similar process will unfold the structure of Geometry.

The founders of mathematical learning among the Greeks were in general tinctured with a portion of mysticism, transmitted from Pythagoras, and cherished in the school of Plato. Geometry became thus infected at its very source. By the later Platonists, who flourished in the Museum of Alexandria, it was regarded as a pure intellectual science, far sublimed above the grossness of material contact. Such visionary metaphysics could not impair the solidity of the edifice, but contributed to perpetuate some misconceptions, and to give a wrong turn to philosophical speculation. It is full time to restore the sobriety of reason. Geometry, like the other sciences which are not concerned about the operations of mind, must

ultimately rest on external observations. But those primary facts are so few, so distinct, and obvious, that the subsequent train of reasoning is safely pursued to unlimited extent, without ever appealing again to the evidence of the senses. The science of Geometry, therefore, owes its perfection to the extreme simplicity of its basis, and derives no visible advantage from the artificial mode of its contexture. The axioms are here rejected, as being totally useless, and rather apt to produce obscurity.

2. The term *Surface*, in Latin *superficies*, and in Greek επιφανεια, conveys a very just idea, as marking the abstract external aspect, or the mere expansion which a body presents to our sense of sight. *Line*, or γραμμα, signifies a *stroke;* and, in reference to the operation of writing, it expresses the boundary or contour of a figure. A straight line has two radical properties which are distinctly marked in different languages. It holds the same undeviating course—and it traces the shortest distance between its extreme points. The first property is expressed by the epithet *recta* in Latin, and *droit* in French; and the last seems intimated by the English term *straight*, which is evidently derived from the verb *to stretch*. Accordingly Proclus defines a straight line as *stretched* between its extremities—ἡ επ' ακρων τεταμενη.

3. The word *Point* in every language signifies a *mark*, thus indicating its essential character, of denoting position. In Greek, the term στιγμα was first used: but this becoming degraded by its application to the marking or branding of slaves, the diminutive σημειον, formed from σημα, a *signal*, came afterwards to be preferred.

The neatest and most comprehensive description of a *point* was given by Pythagoras, who defined it to be "a monad having position." Plato represents the *hypostasis*, or constitution of a point, as *adamantine;* finely alluding to the opinion which then prevailed, that the diamond is absolutely indivisible, the art of cutting this refractory substance being the dis-

covery of modern ages, and perhaps not older than the middle of the fifteenth century.

4. The just conception of an *Angle* is one of the most difficult in elementary Geometry. The term corresponds, in most languages, to *corner*, and therefore exhibits a most imperfect picture of the object intimated. Apollonius defined it to be "the collection of space about a point." Euclid makes an angle to consist in "the mutual inclination, or κλισις, of its containing lines,"—a definition which is obscure and altogether defective. In strictness, it can apply only to acute angles, nor does it give any idea of angular magnitude; though this really is as capable of augmentation as the magnitude of lines themselves. It is curious to observe the shifts to which the Author of the Elements is hence frequently obliged to have recourse. This remark is particularly exemplified in the 20th and 21st Propositions of his Third Book. Had Euclid been acquainted with Trigonometry, which was only begun to be cultivated in his time, he would certainly have taken a more enlarged view of the nature of an angle.

5. In the definition of *Reverse Angle*, I find that I have been anticipated by the famous mechanician Stevin of Bruges, who flourished about the end of the sixteenth century. It is satisfactory, even in such a small innovation, to have the countenance of an authority so highly respectable.

6. A *Square* is commonly described as having *all* its angles right. This definition errs however by excess, for it contains more than what is absolutely required. The original Greek, and even the Latin version, by employing the general terms ὀρθογώνιον, and *rectangulum*, dexterously avoided that objection. The word *Rhombus* comes from ῥέμβειν, *to sling*, as the figure represents only a quadrangular frame disjointed. The *Lozenge*, in heraldry and commerce, is that species of rhombus which is composed of two equilateral triangles placed on opposite sides of the same base.

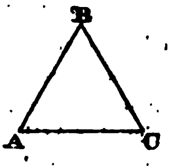
7. It scarcely deserves notice, but I will anticipate the objection which may be brought against me, for having changed the definition of *Trapezium*. The fact is, that I have only restricted the word to its appropriate meaning, from which Euclid had, according to Proclus, taken the liberty to depart. In the original, it signifies *a table*; and hence we learn the prevailing form of the tables used among the Greeks. Indeed the ancients would appear to have had some predilection for the figure of the trapezium, since the doors now seen in the ruins of the temples at Athens are not exactly oblong, but wider below than above, probably to accommodate the flowing dress of the priests.

8. Language is capable of more precision, in proportion as it becomes copious. As I have confined the epithet *right* to angles, and *straight* to lines, I have likewise appropriated the word *diagonal* to rectilineal figures, and *diameter* to the circle. In like manner, I have restricted the term *arc* to a portion of the circumference, its synonym *arch* being assigned to the use of architecture. For the same reason, I have adopted the term *equivalent*, from the celebrated Legendre, whose *Elemens de Geometrie* is one of the ablest works that has appeared in our times. These distinctions evidently tend to promote perspicuity, which is the great object of an elementary treatise.—Euclid and all his successors define an isosceles triangle to have *only* two equal sides, which would absolutely exclude the equilateral triangle. Yet the equilateral triangle is afterwards assumed by them to be a species of isosceles triangle, since the equality of its angles is inferred at once as a corollary from the equality of the angles at the base of an isosceles triangle. This inadvertency, slight as it may appear, is now avoided.

PROPOSITIONS.

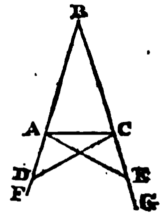
9. The tenth Proposition may be very simply demonstrated, in the same manner as the next or its converse, by a direct

appeal to superposition or mental experiment. For, suppose a copy of the triangle ABC were inverted and applied to it, the sides BA and BC being equal, if BA be laid on BC, the side BC again will evidently lie on BA, and the base AC coincide with CA. Consequently the angle BAC, occupying now the place of BCA, must be equal to this angle.



It may be worth while to remark, that Euclid's demonstration of this Proposition, which being placed near the commencement of the Elements, has from its intricacy been styled the *Pons Asinorum*, is in fact essentially the same with what has now been given. This will readily appear on a review of the several steps of his reasoning:—

The sides BA and BC of the isosceles triangle being produced, the equal segments AD and CE are assumed, and AE, CD joined.—1. The complex triangles ABE and CBD are compared: The sides AB and BC are equal, and likewise BE and BD, which consist of equal parts, and the contained angles EBA and DBC are the same with DBE; whence (I. 3.) these triangles are equivalent, and the base AE equal to CD, the angle BAE equal to BCD, and the angle BEA to BDC.—2. The additive triangles CAE and ACD are next compared: The sides EC and EA being equal to DA and DC, and the contained angle CEA equal to ADC, the triangles are (I. 3.) equivalent, and therefore the angle CAE is equal to ACD.—3. Lastly, since the whole angle BAE is equal to BCD, and the part CAE to ACD, the remainder BAC must be equal to BCA.

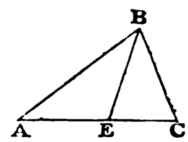


Now this process of reasoning is at best involved and circuitous. The compound triangles ABE and CBD consist of the isosceles triangles ABC joined to each of the appended triangles ACE and CAD; when, therefore, as the demonstration implies, ABE is laid on CBD, the common part ABC

is reversed, or it is applied to CBA, and the other part ACE is laid on CAD. But the superposition of ABC or CBA is easily perceived by itself; nor is the conception of that inverted application anywise aided by having recourse to the superposition, first of the enlarged triangles ABE and CBD, and then contracting these by the superposition of the subsidiary triangles ACE and CAD. In this, as in some other instances, Euclid has deceived himself, in attempting a greater than usual strictness of reasoning.

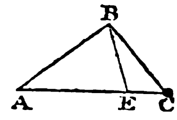
10. The fourteenth Proposition may be demonstrated otherwise.

Draw (I. 5. El.) BE bisecting the angle ABC. The angle BEA (I. 8. El.) is greater than the interior angle EBC or EBA, and therefore (I. 13. El.) the side AB is greater than AE. In like manner, the angle BEC is greater than the interior angle EBA or EBC, and consequently (I. 13. El.) the side CB is greater than CE. Wherefore the two sides AB and CB, being each of them greater than the adjacent segments AE and CE, are together greater than the whole base AC.



From this proposition it might be easily shown that the two sides of a triangle are greater than double the line drawn from the vertex to the middle of the base. For, suppose E to be that middle point, and BE being produced till EF be equal to it, and let AF be joined; the triangle AEF would evidently be equal to BEC; wherefore, AB and AF or BC are together greater than BF or twice BE.

11. The fifteenth Proposition might also be demonstrated otherwise. For join BE (I. 12.) the exterior angle BEC of the triangle BAE is (I. 12.) greater than the interior ABE or (I. 10.) AEB, which again is the exterior angle of the triangle ECB, and therefore (I. 12.) greater than CBE. Whence (I. 13.) the side BC opposite to the greater angle is greater than CE, or CE the differ-

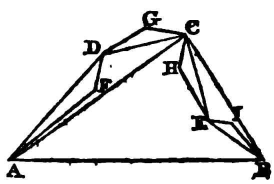


ence between the sides AB and AC is less than the third side BC.

12. From the property that two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side, may be derived the generic character of a straight line:

The shortest line that can be drawn between two points, is a straight line.

Let the points A and B be connected by straight lines joining an intermediate point C; and the two sides AC and BC of the triangle ACB are greater than AB (I. 15.). Now let a third point D be placed between A and C; and because AD and DC are together greater than AC, add BC to both, and the three lines AD, DC, and CB are greater than AC and BC, and consequently still greater than AB. Again, suppose a fourth point E connected B with C; and the sides BE and CE of the triangle BCE being greater than BC, the four straight lines AD, DC, CE, and EB are together, by a still farther excess, greater than AB. By thus repeatedly multiplying the interjacent points, two sides of a triangle will at each successive step come instead of a third side, and consequently the aggregate polygonal or crooked line AFDGCHEIB will acquire continually at each step some farther extension. Nay, since there is no limit to the possible number of those connecting points, they may approach each other nearer than any assignable interval; and consequently the proposition is also true in that extreme case where the boundary is a curve line, or of which no portion can be deemed rectilineal.



The proposition now demonstrated is commonly assumed as an axiom. It is indeed forced upon our earliest observation, being suggested by the stretching of a cord, and other familiar occurrences in life. But to multiply inconsiderately the number of original principles, appears quite repugnant to the spirit of sound philosophy. The two radical properties of a straight line—the congruity of its parts—and its shortness

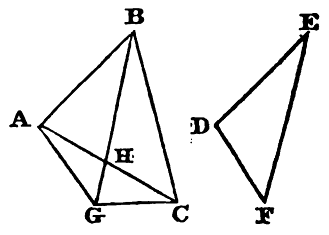
of trace—are distinct, though connected. The latter is shown to be the necessary consequence of the former; but it would be impossible, by any direct process, to infer the uniformity of straight lines, from their marking out the nearest routes.

In the demonstration, I could not avoid introducing the consideration of limits. This will occasion, I presume, no material difficulty, since the reasoning is actually the same as that by which our most familiar conceptions are gradually expanded.

Mr Schwab, author of a small tract, under the title of *Elemens de Geometrie*, published at Nancy in 1813, has endeavoured to define a straight line as that which, being turned like an axis about its two extremities, all its intermediate points will constantly preserve the same position. This ingenious idea I have adopted, in distinguishing the character of a straight line.

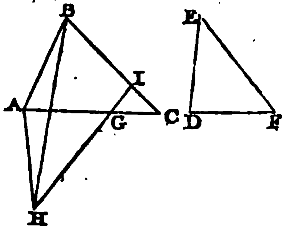
The same intelligent writer has, I find, referred the generation of angles to a revolving motion. He considers the right angle as derived from the quartering of a whole revolution; and he likewise views, as I have done, the angle which a portion of a straight line makes with its opposite portion, as formed by a semi-revolution.

13. In reference to the eighteenth Proposition, the ingenious Mr T. Simpson has very justly remarked, in his Elements of Geometry, that the demonstration which Euclid gives of this proposition is defective, since it assumes that the point G must lie below the base AC. He has therefore legitimately supplied the deficiency of the proof; and it is surprising that so rigorous a geometer as Dr Robert Simson should have so far yielded to his prejudices, as to resist such a decided improvement. The demonstration inserted in the text appears to be rather simpler, and more natural than that of Mr T. Simpson.



14. The nineteenth Proposition is capable of being demonstrated directly.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF have the sides AB and BC equal to DE and EF, but the base AC greater than DF; the vertical angle ABC is greater than DEF.

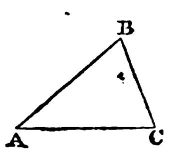


From the greater base AC cut off AG equal to DF, construct (I. 1.) the triangle AHG having the sides AH and GH equal to AB and BC or DE and EF, join HB, and produce HG to meet BC in I.

Because HI is greater than HG, it is greater than the equal side BC, and therefore much greater than BI. Consequently the opposite angle IBH of the triangle BIH is (I. 13.) greater than BHI. But AB being equal to AH, the angle HBA is (I. 10.) equal to BHA, and therefore the two angles IBH and HBA are greater than IHB and BHA, that is, the whole angle CBA is greater than IHA or GHA. And since the sides of the triangle AGH are by construction equal to those of EDF, the corresponding angle AHG is equal to DEF (I. 2.); and hence the angle ABC, which is greater than AHG, is likewise greater than DEF.—In like manner, this may be demonstrated, if BH should fall without the base.

15. It is not difficult to perceive that the whole structure of geometry is grounded on the mutual comparison of triangles, the simplest of all the rectilineal figures. The conditions which fix the equality of those elementary portions of surface, are all contained in the 2d, 3d, 20th and 21st propositions of this Book. Such original theorems derive their evidence from the superposition of the triangles themselves; which, in reality, is nothing but an ultimate appeal, though of the easiest and most familiar kind, to external observation. The same conclusions, however, might be deduced more concisely, from the circumstances required to determine the constitution of an indivi-

dual triangle. Suppose AB, BC, and AC, any one of which is shorter than the other two conjoined in a straight line, to be three inflexible rods moveable at pleasure.—(1.) Place them with their ends meeting each other, and they will evidently rest in the same position, and contain a distinct triangle,—which corresponds to Proposition 2.—(2.) Having joined the rods AB and BC at B, continue to open them at that point, till they form a given vertical angle ABC; their position then becomes fixed, and consequently determines the rod AC which connects their extremities and completes the triangle. This inference evidently agrees with Proposition 3.—(3.) While the rod AC retains its place, let two rods AB and CB of unlimited length, and applied at the ends A and C, be opened gradually till the one forms with AC a given angle CAB, and the other a given angle ACB; it is evident that AB and BC will then rest crossing each other in those positions, and containing a determinate triangle, of which the vertex B is their point of mutual intersection. This property corresponds with Proposition 20.—(4.) Let the rod AB of a given length make a given angle with the unlimited rod AC, and applying at the end B another given rod, turn this gradually round till it meets AC. If BC exceeds the distance of B from AC, it will evidently, after stretching beyond AC, again come to meet that boundary. With such conditions, therefore, the rods might contain two determinate triangles, the one acute and the other obtuse, and which are hence distinguished from each other by those obvious characters. This qualified property, omitted in most elementary works, is yet of extensive application, and was requisite to complete the conditions of the equality of triangles. It corresponds with Proposition 21.



The four preceding theorems are reducible, however, to a single property, which includes all the different requisites to the equality of triangles. The sides of a triangle are obviously independent of each other, being subject to this condition

only, that any one of them shall be less than the remaining two sides. But since all the angles of a triangle are together equal to two right angles, the third angle must, in every case, be the necessary result of the other two angles. A triangle has, therefore, only five original and variable parts—the three sides and two of its angles. *Any three of these parts being ascertained, the triangle is absolutely determined.* Thus—when (1.) all the three sides are given,—when (2.) two sides and their contained angle are given,—when (4.) two sides and an opposite angle are given, with the affection of the triangle, or when (3.) one side and two angles, and thence the third angle are given,—the triangle is completely marked out.

M. Legendre, in a very elaborate note to his *Elemens de Geometrie*, has sought, with much ingenuity, to deduce *à priori* the radical properties of triangles from the theory of *functions*. But, like other similar attempts, his investigation actually involves in it a latent assumption. This subtle logician sets out with the principle which would seem almost intuitive, that a triangle is determined when the base and its adjacent angles are given. The vertical angle, therefore, depends wholly on these data,—the base and its adjacent angles. Call the base c, its adjacent angles A, B, and the vertical or opposite angle C. This third angle, being derived from the quantities A, B and c, must be a determinate function of them, or formed from their combination. Whence, adopting his notation $C = \varphi : (A, B, c)$. But the line c is of a nature heterogeneous to the angles A and B, and therefore cannot be compounded with these quantities. Consequently $C = \phi : (A, B)$, or the vertical angle C is a function merely of the angles A and B at the base; and hence the third angle of a triangle must depend wholly on the other two.

To a speculative mathematician this argument is very seductive, though it will not bear a rigid examination. Many quantities in fact appear to result from the combined relation to other quantities that are altogether heterogeneous. Thus, the space which the moving body describes, depends on the

joint elements of time and velocity, things entirely distinct in their nature; and thus, the length of an arc of a circle is compounded of the radius, and of the angle it subtends at the centre, which are obviously heterogeneous magnitudes. For aught we previously knew to the contrary, the base c might, by its combination with the angles A and B, modify their relation, and thence affect the value of the vertical angle C. In another parallel case, the force of this remark is easily perceived. Thus, when the sides a, b and their contained angle C are given, the triangle is determined, as the simplest observation shows. Wherefore the base c is derived solely from these data, or $c = \varphi : (a, b, C)$. But the angle C, being heterogeneous to the sides a and b, cannot coalesce with them into an equation, and consequently the base c is simply a function of a and b, or it is the necessary result merely of the other two sides. In other words, as the third angle of a triangle depends on the other two angles, so the base of a triangle must have its magnitude determined by the lengths of the two incumbent sides. Such is the extreme absurdity to which this sort of reasoning would lead! In both of these instances, indeed, the conclusion is admitted by implication, only in the one it is consistent with truth, while in the other it is palpably false. —That such an acute philosopher could overlook the fallacy of his argument, can only be ascribed to the influence which peculiar trains of thought acquire over the mind, and to the extreme facility with which elementary principles insinuate and blend themselves with almost every process of reasoning.

The objections here directed against the celebrated abstruse attempt to demonstrate, *à priori*, the equality of triangles from the nature of equations, and the properties of homogeneous quantities, have, generally, I believe, been deemed conclusive. I have scarcely heard, indeed, of a geometer of any eminence in the island, (except the learned writer of a critique which appeared in the Edinburgh Review,) who is not perfectly convinced of the fallacy lurking in the argument advanced by its very ingenious inventor. On this occasion, I shall take the liberty of introducing an extract from a letter to me,

dated October 20. 1816, from an old friend and fellow-student, who now stands decidedly at the head of our mathematicians.

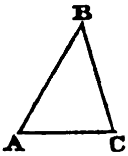
"With regard to Legendre's demonstration, I am of opinion, that there is involved in the *mise en equation*, (reduced to an equation,) a principle which is equivalent to Euclid's 12th axiom, (If a straight line meets two straight lines, so as to make the two interior angles on the same side of it taken together less than two right angles, these straight lines, being continually produced, will at length meet on that side, on which are the angles which are less than two right angles.) Using the notation of your book, his assumption is, that $C = \varphi : (A, B, c)$: Now, this means that we shall get the angle C, by combining the angles A and B with the line c, in a certain way; and it is implied, that this is true, whatever value the line c may have; or, in other words, it is true for all values of c. Suppose then an individual triangle, of which c is the base, and A, B, the angles at its extremities; conceive an indefinite number of lines, of any lengths, c', c'', c''', &c. and at the ends of each of these lines, angles to be made equal to A and B,—will a triangle be thus formed upon each of the lines c', c'', c''', &c. or not? If you say that you cannot allow the existence of such triangles without proof, you agree with the Greek geometer, but then you must deny the legitimacy of Legendre's equation, $C = \varphi : (A, B, c)$; for it supposes the possibility of such triangles, since it is a determination of the third angle of each of them from knowing the base and the other two angles. If you grant the possibility of the triangles, then Legendre's equation will be established; but you also admit Euclid's 12th axiom: For you assume, that two lines drawn at the extremities of any third line, so as to make with it two angles equal to any two angles of a triangle, do meet one another when produced. On examination you will find, that the only relation generally true of two angles of a triangle is this, that they are together less than two right angles. I cannot, therefore, admit, that Legendre's demonstration contributes in any degree to remove the difficulty in geometry. The intrinsic evi-

dence of a principle, or proposition, is the same whether it be expressed in common language, or translated into the language of functions. Grant to the geometer the same assumption which is implied in the functional equation of the analyst, and he will be no longer embarrassed with the theory of parallel lines. Legendre endeavours to justify his equation, by saying that two triangles are identical when they have their bases equal, and likewise the angles adjacent to their bases equal, each to each. But this does not prove, that of all the infinite number of triangles which can be formed upon a line greater or less than the base of a given triangle, there is always one that has the angles at its base equal to the angles at the base of the given triangle. If this be thought a more self-evident principle than those that geometers have employed, let it be transferred to geometry, and that science will no longer have need to borrow aid from the theory of functions."

To these acute and judicious remarks, I think it unnecessary to subjoin any farther observations; but, in justice to the illustrious author of the argument drawn from the higher analysis, I must state that he still remains persuaded of its legitimacy. In a very flattering letter which he did me the honour to write, bearing date, Paris, 5th February 1816, he thus adverts to the subject in dispute. " Ayant un très grande idée de la superiorité de vos lumières, Monsieur, j'eprouve un regret d'autant plus vif de voir que vous n'approuviez pas, ou même que vous regardiez comme illusoire la demonstration que j'ai donée dans mes notes du principe sur les trois angles du triangle. J'ai cependant la conviction intime que cette demonstration est parfaitement rigoureuse, et j'ose vous prier d'y donner encore quelqu' attention, persuadé que vous reconnoitrez son exactitude. La loi de l'homogenité est une loi generale, qui n'est jamais en defaut, et qui doit être rangée parmi les principes elementaires les plus generaux et les plus simples. L'angle est un quantité que je mesure toujours, par son rapport avec l'angle droit, car l'angle droit est l'unité naturelle des angles: Dans cette notion très simple, une angle est toujours un nombre. Il n'en est pas de même des lignes:

une ligne ne peut entrer dans de calcul, dans une equation quelconque, qu'avec une autre ligne que sera prise pour unité, ou qui aura un rapport connu avec la ligne unité.

" Ainsi l'equation $C = \phi : (A, B, c)$ rapportée, *pag.* 293, où A, B, C, sont des angles, et par consequent des nombres, ne sauroit subsister, à moins que c ne disparoisse. Car si c ne disparoit pas, il faudra qu'une longueur absolue c soit determinée par des nombres, sans que l'unité de longueur soit connue, ce qui est une absurdité. L'objection faite, *pag. suiv.* sur l'equation $c = \varphi : (a, b, C)$ se résout très facilement. Rien n'empêche que C, qui est un nombre, (par rapport à l'angle droit pris pour unité,) ne soit une fonction de a, b, C, pourvu que cette fonction soit de nulle dimension, c'est-à-dire, pourvu que le fonction de a, b, C se reduise à une fonction de deux rapports, tels que $\frac{b}{a}, \frac{c}{a}$. Et en effet, c'est ce qui a lieu d'après l'equation trigonometrique, $cos\ C = \frac{a^2 + b^2 - c^2}{2ab} = \frac{1 + \frac{b^2}{a^2} - \frac{c^2}{a^2}}{2.\frac{b}{a}}$.



Ajouterai-je à ces raisons, une idée qui m'est venue plusieurs fois. Suppose que le même triangle, dont vous vous occupez, soit mis sous les yeux d'un être intelligent, dont la stature et celle des objets qui l'environnent soient cent fois plus grandes que celle des objets environnans—mon raisonnement sera toujours le même, et ne perdra rien de la force. Croiez-vous, cependant, qu'il fut possible que c restât dans l'equation, $C = \phi : (A, B, c)$? Et si c restoit, les géans dont je parle deduiroient-ils de cette equation la même valeur que vous? Il faudroit que cela fut, car l'objet a les mêmes dimensions dans les deux cas."

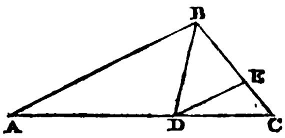
I owe an apology to M. Legendre, whose friendship and genius I highly respect, for having printed this communication; but the easy style of it appeared nowise derogatory to his talents, and I was very unwilling, in a controversy of this nature, to consume his precious time, by engaging him to draw up a more elaborate defence.

On reconsidering the subject maturely, I confess that I cannot assent to the force of the reasoning contained in this extract, however clearly and neatly it is here developed. The whole stress of the argument, it may be perceived, lies in the distinction which M. Legendre endeavours to establish between angles and lines,—a distinction which I hold to be at bottom merely arbitrary. Angles and lines are both equally real quantities, though of different kinds; they are capable of being measured, and consequently represented by numbers, by referring each of them to some determinate measure or unit of its own denomination. Angles are measured or expressed numerically by angles, and lines by lines. It is true, that the mensuration of angles is facilitated by a reference to the subdivision of the circuit or entire revolution; yet even this mode of denoting angular magnitude is evidently only conventional. As standards for measuring straight lines, nature has furnished the limbs of the human body, and the extent of our globe itself. Such units of mensuration are not indeed very definite or readily attainable; but they are not therefore the less real or prominent. Nor is there any essential difference in principle between the expressing of an angle by degrees, of which 360 or 400 are contained in a complete revolution, and the denoting of a straight line on the French system, for instance, by the number of *metres* it includes, each of which is the forty millionth part of the entire circumference of the earth. Angles and lines hence present to the mind no radical or absolute discrimination, and therefore the argument grounded on such a distinction must lose all its efficacy.

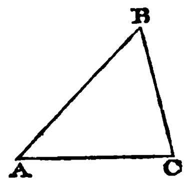
Admitting, however, what the slightest inspection readily confirms, that the third angle is merely derived from the other two, M. Legendre demonstrates with great elegance, the property that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles. Letting fall from the right angle a perpendicular on the hypotenuse, he divides any right-angled triangle into two subordinate triangles, which have each of them two angles equal to those of the original triangle; whence the

acute angles of that triangle are alternately equal to the angles which compose the right angle. But every triangle may be divided into two right-angled triangles, by letting fall a perpendicular from the vertex on the base, and consequently the acute angles of both these triangles, and which form the angles at the base, and the vertical angle of the primary triangle,—are together equal to two right angles.

This theorem may be proved somewhat more directly. In the triangle ABC, let the angle CBA be greater than ACB, and draw BD, and then DE, making the angles ABD and BDE each equal to ACB. The triangles ABC and ADB having the common angle BAC and the angle ACB equal to ABD, their third angles ABC and ADB must be equal. But the triangles BCD and BDE have also a common angle CBD, and equal angles DCB and BDE; whence the third angle BDC is equal to BED, and therefore the supplementary angle ADB, equal to ABC, is equal to DEC. Again, the triangles ABC and DEC having two common or equal angles, their third angles BAC and EDC are equal; wherefore the three angles ABC, BCA and BAC of the original triangle, are respectively equal to BDA, BDE and EDC, and hence equal to two right angles.—If the triangle ABC be equiangular, divide it into two scalene triangles ABD and CBD, the angles of which, or the angles of the original triangle, together with the adjoining angles ADB and BDC, must be equal to four right angles, and consequently the angles of that triangle are equal to two right angles.



But the proposition is easily derived from another view of the subject. If we suppose a ruler turning about the point A, to change its direction AC into AB, then opening at B till it gains the direction BC, and finally wearing about the point C till it acquires the opposite position CA; thus changing its direction with respect to a remote object, by three suc-

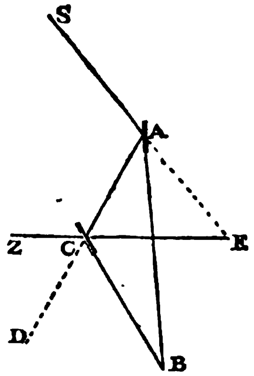


cessive openings all to the same side, the ruler, being now reversed, must have performed half a circuit; that is, the three angles of a triangle, which constitute those openings, are equal to two right angles.

The profound geometer already quoted, pursuing his refined argument, has, from the consideration of homogeneous quantities, likewise attempted to deduce the proportionality of the sides of equiangular triangles. But in this abstruse research, assumptions are still disguised and mixed up in the progress of induction. Such indeed must be the case with every kind of reasoning on mathematical or physical objects, which proceed *à priori*, without appealing, at least in the first instance, to external observation. Of this kind are some of those ingenious analytical investigations respecting the laws of motion and the composition of forces. In fact, no elementary physical truth can ever be discovered by any process of calculation, which merely combines or embodies into a general result the various assumptions that have been tacitly made. The principle of *sufficient reason*, introduced by Leibnitz, appears to be nothing but an artificial mode of dressing out an hypothesis, which the celebrated Boscovich has well exposed in his excellent notes to a didactic poem by Stay, entitled *Philosophia Recentior*.

14. Proposition twenty-second. The subject of parallel lines has exercised the ingenuity of modern geometers; for Euclid had only endeavoured to evade the difficulty, by styling the fundamental proposition an axiom. The investigation now given seems to be one of the best adapted to the natural progress of discovery. It is almost ridiculous to scruple about admitting the idea of motion, which I have employed for the sake of clearness. But even that futile objection might be obviated, by considering merely the successive positions of the straight line extending through the given point.

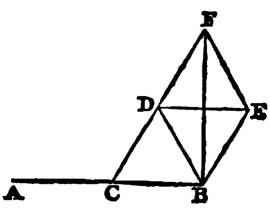
15. Proposition thirtieth. That invaluable instrument, Hadley's quadrant, is founded on the second corollary, annexed as an obvious consequence of the proposition. A ray of light SA, from the sun, impinging against the mirror at A, is reflected at an angle equal to its incidence; and now striking the half silvered glass at C, it is again reflected to E, where the eye likewise receives, through the transparent part of that glass, a direct ray from the boundary of the horizon. Hence the triangle AEC has its exterior angle ECD and one of its interior angles CAE, respectively double of the exterior angle BCD and the interior angle CAB, of the triangle ABC; wherefore the remaining interior angle AEC, or SEZ, is double of ABC; that is, the altitude of the sun above the horizon is double of the inclination of the two mirrors. But the glass at C remaining fixed, the mirror at A is attached to a moveable index, which marks their inclination.



The same instrument, in its most improved state, and fitted with a telescope, forms the sextant, which, being admirably calculated for measuring angles in general, has rendered the most important services to geography and navigation.

16. Proposition thirty-fourth. This problem is generally constructed somewhat differently.

In AB take any point C, and on BC (I. 1. cor.) describe an equilateral triangle CDB, on its side DB, another DEB; and on DE the side of this, a third equilateral triangle DFE; join the last vertex F with the point B; and BF is the perpendicular required.



Because the triangles CDB and

DBE are equilateral, the angles CBD and DBE are each of them equal to two-third parts of a right angle (I. 30. cor. 1.) and the triangles BDF, BEF, having the sides BD, DF equal to BE, EF, and the side BF common, are (I. 2.) equal, and consequently the angles FBD and FBE are equal, and each of them the half of DBE. The angle FBD, being therefore one-third part of a right angle, and the angle DBA two-third parts, the whole angle FBC must be an entire right angle, or the straight line BF is perpendicular to AB.

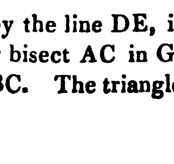
BOOK II.

1. A simple proposition might be here introduced.

A straight line bisecting two sides of a triangle, is parallel to the base.

The straight line DE which joins the middle points of the sides AB and BC, is parallel to the base AC of the triangle ABC.

For join AE and CD. Because the triangles ADC, BCD stand on equal bases AD, DB, and have the same vertex or altitude, they are (II. 2.) equivalent, and therefore ADC is half of the whole triangle ABC. For the same reason, since CE is equal to EB, the triangle AEC is equivalent to AEB, and is consequently half of the whole triangle ABC. Whence the triangles ADC and AEC are equivalent; and they stand on the same base AC, and have therefore the same altitude (II. 3.), or DE is parallel to AC.



Cor. Hence the triangle DBE cut off by the line DE, is the fourth part of the original triangle. For bisect AC in G, and join DG, which is therefore parallel to BC. The triangle

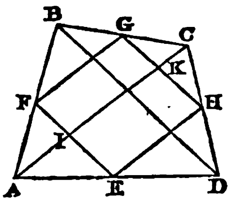
ADG is equivalent to GDC (II. 2.), and GDC, being the half of the rhomboid CE, is equivalent to DEC, which again is (II. 2.) equivalent to DEB. The triangle ABC is thus divided into four equivalent triangles, of which DBE is one. Hence also the rhomboid GDEC is half of the original triangle.

2. From the preceding proposition the following theorem is easily derived.

Straight lines joining the successive middle points of the sides of a quadrilateral figure form a rhomboid.

If the sides of the quadrilateral figure ABCD be bisected, and the points of section joined in their order; EFGH is a rhomboid.

For draw AC, BD. And because FG bisects AB, BC it is parallel to AC; and for the same reason, EH, as it bisects AD and DC, is parallel to AC. Wherefore FG is parallel to EH (I. 28.). In like manner, it is proved that EF is parallel to HG; and consequently the figure EFGH is a rhomboid or parallelogram.



It is likewise evident, that the inscribed rhomboid is half of the quadrilateral figure; for IG is half of the triangle ABC and IH is half of the triangle ADC.

3. Proposition fourth. This problem is of great use in practical geometry. The plan, for instance, of any grounds, however irregular, is divided into a number of triangles, which are successively reduced to a simple triangle, and this again is converted (by II. 6.) into a rectangle. Instead of computing, therefore, each component triangle, it may be sufficient to calculate the area of the final triangle or rectangle.

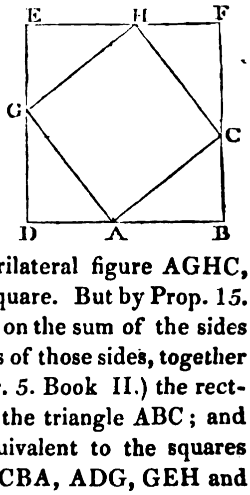
4. Proposition ninth. On this proposition is founded the method of *offsets*, which enters so largely into the practice of land-surveying. In measuring a field of a very irregular shape, the principal points only are connected by straight

lines forming sides of the component triangles, and the distance of each remarkable flexure of the extreme boundary is taken from these rectilineal traces. The exterior border of the polygon is therefore considered as a collection of trapezoids, which are measured by multiplying the mean of each pair of offsets or perpendiculars into their base or intermediate distance.

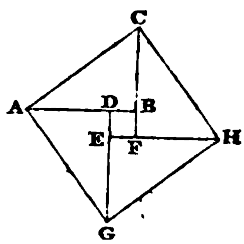
5. Proposition tenth. This beautiful property is easily derived from Propositions fifteenth and sixteenth of Book II.

1. Let ABC be a triangle right-angled at B; produce the base AB till AD be equal to the perpendicular BC; on the compound line BD describe the square BDEF, and make DG and EH equal to AB, and join AG, GH and HC.

The triangles ABC and GDA, having the sides AB, BC evidently equal to DG, and AD, and the right angle at B equal to that at D, are (I. 3.) equal. In the same manner, the triangles HEG and CHF are proved to be equal to ABC. But (I. 30.) the exterior angle GAB is equal to the interior angles ADG and AGD, from which take away the equal angles CAB and AGD, and there remains GAC equal to ADG, and consequently a right angle. Wherefore the quadrilateral figure AGHC, having likewise all its sides equal, is a square. But by Prop. 15. Book II. the square BDEF, described on the sum of the sides AB and BC, is equivalent to the squares of those sides, together with twice their rectangle. Now (cor. 5. Book II.) the rectangle under AB and BC is double of the triangle ABC; and consequently the square BDEF is equivalent to the squares of AB and BC, and the four triangles CBA, ADG, GEH and HFC: but the same square is equivalent to the interior square AGHC, with those four triangles; wherefore the squares of the base AB and of the perpendicular BC, are equivalent to the single square described on the hypotenuse AC.



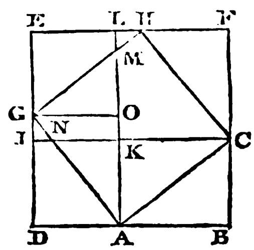
2. From the base AB, cut off a part AD equal to the perpendicular BC, and on the remaining portion BD construct the square BDEF; produce DE and EF, till EG and FH be equal to AD, and join AG, GH, and HC. The triangles CBA, ADG, GEH, and HFC are proved to be equal as before. Again, the angle CAG being equal to the angles CAB and DAG or BCA, the acute angles of the right-angled triangle ABC, is consequently a right angle. Wherefore the quadrilateral figure ACHG is a square. But, by Prop. 16. Book II. the square BDEF, described on BD the difference between the base AB and BC the perpendicular is equivalent, to the squares of AB and BC, diminished by twice their rectangle or by the four triangles CBA, ADG, GEH, and HFC. But the square BDEF is evidently equivalent to the square ACHG described on the hypotenuse AC, diminished by those triangles, and therefore equivalent to the squares of the base AB and of the perpendicular BC,



This famous proposition appears to have been first introduced into Greece by Pythagoras. Both the demonstrations now given were long afterwards common among the Arabians and Persians, and by them communicated to the nations of India. The second mode, however, would seem to be the favourite, since the figure used is, in the Oriental languages, styled the *bridal chair* or *couch*, in allusion to its form or its prolific virtues. This figure, and the preceding one, are well adapted for exhibiting the result, by the dissection and transposition of their several parts. The very meagre treatises of geometry written in the Sanscrit language, and the versions of Euclid's Elements by Persian or Arabian commentators, display some variety of such dissections, all of them derived evidently from the same source,

The method generally adopted is commonly ascribed to the Persian astronomer Nassir Eddin, who flourished in the thirteenth century of our æra, under the munificent patronage of the conqueror Zingis Khan.

It may gratify the young student in geometry to see the mode of performing this dissection. Having drawn AL parallel to BF, and IC and GO parallel to DB, place the triangle CKA on CFH, invert the triangle GOA on ADG, place the triangle GOM on AKN, and transfer the small triangle GIN to HLM. In this way, the square AGHC is transformed into the two squares CKLF and ADIK. By reversing the process, the squares of the sides of the right-angled triangle may be compounded into the single square of the hypotenuse.



6. It was a favourite speculation with the Greek geometers, to express numerically the sides of a right-angled triangle. The rules which they delivered for that purpose are equally simple and ingenious. For the sake of conciseness, it will be convenient, however, to adopt the language of symbols. Let n denote any odd number; then,

according to Pythagoras, n, $\frac{n^2-1}{2}$ and $\frac{n^2+1}{2}$, or

according to Plato, $2n$, n^2-1 and n^2+1, being the dubles of the former, will represent the perpendicular, the base, and hypotenuse, of a right-angled triangle.—Thus, n being supposed equal to 3, the numbers thence resulting are 3, 4, and 5, or 6, 8, and 10.

These analytical expressions are fundamentally the same, and are easily derived from Proposition 17. Book II.: For $(n^2+1)^2-(n^2-1)^2=((n^2+1)+(n^2-1))((n^2+1)-(n^2-1))=2n^2\times2=(2n)^2$. Or, without having recourse to algebraical notation, since the square of the perpendicular is equivalent

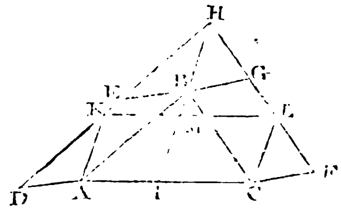
to the difference between the squares of the hypotenuse and of the base, it must, by that same proposition, be equivalent to the rectangle under the sum and difference of the hypotenuse and base. Wherefore, if the perpendicular be an odd number, its square may be considered as the product of its two adjacent integral parts into the unit which forms their difference. Thus, assuming the perpendicular equal to 3, its square 9 may split into an even and odd number, 4 and 5, for the base and hypotenuse: if the perpendicular be 5, the square 25 is parted into 12 and 13, for the corresponding base and hypotenuse; or if this perpendicular be denoted by 7, whose square is 49, the base and perpendicular must, by this approximate bisection, be 24 and 25. Again, if the perpendicular be supposed to be an even number, its square may be divided into two adjacent factors, whose sum is the half and their difference 2. Thus, the perpendicular being 4, the half of its square, or 8, is split into 3 and 5, for the base and hypotenuse; if 6 be the perpendicular, the half of its square, or 18, is divided into 8 and 10, for the base and hypotenuse; and were 8 to represent the perpendicular, the half of its square, or 32, gives 15 and 17, for the corresponding base and perpendicular.

7. We may here introduce, from the Mathematical Collections of Pappus, an elegant extension of the famous Tenth Proposition.

In any triangle, rhomboids described on the two sides, are together equivalent to a rhomboid described on the base, and limited by these and by parallels to the line which joins the vertex with their point of concourse.

Let ADEB and BGFC be rhomboids described on the two sides AB and BC of the triangle ABC; produce the summits DE and FG to meet in H, join this point with the vertex B, to BH draw the parallels AK, CL, and join KL. It is obvious that AK and CL, being equal and parallel to BH, are likewise equal and parallel to each other, and that the figure AKLC is a parallelogram or rhomboid.—This rhomboid is equivalent to the two rhomboids BD and BF.

For produce HB to meet the base AC in I. And because the rhomboids KI and AH stand on the same base AK and between the same parallels, they are equivalent (II. 1. cor.) ; but the rhomboids AH and BD, standing on the same base AB and between the same parallels, are also equivalent. Whence KI is equivalent to BD. And in the same manner, it may be proved that LI is equivalent to BF. Consequently the whole rhomboid KC is equivalent to the two rhomboids BD and BF.



If the triangle ABC be right-angled at B, this theorem will pass into a case of the twenty-sixth of Book VI.; the rhomboid, described on the hypotenuse, being equivalent to the similar rhomboids described on the two sides. When these rhomboids become squares, the proposition becomes the same as the tenth; the only difference in the construction being, that a square AKOC (p. 52.) is constructed above the hypotenuse AC, instead of the square ADEC constructed below it.

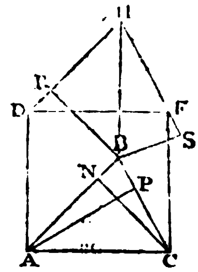
8. From the proposition in the last article, an important theorem may be derived, which deserves a place in an elementary work :

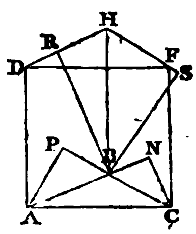
In any triangle, the square described on the base is equivalent to the rectangles contained by the two sides and their segments intercepted from the base by perpendiculars let fall upon them from its opposite extremities.

Let the perpendiculars AP, CN be let fall from the points A, C upon the opposite sides BC and AB of the triangle ABC; the square of AC is equivalent to the rectangles contained by AB, AN, and by BC, CP.

For complete the rhomboids ADHB and CFHB, and let fall the perpendiculars BR and BS upon DH and FH.

It is manifest, that the rhomboids AH and CH are equivalent to the square of AC. But the rhomboid AH is equivalent to the rectangle contained by AB and BR (II. 1. cor.). Comparing the triangles BHR and ACN; the angle BRH, being a right angle, is equal to ANC; and the two acute angles BHR and RBH, being together equal to a right angle, are equal to DAN and NAC; but DAB is equal to DHB (I. 26.), whence the angle RBH is equal to NAC. These triangles BRH and ACN, having thus two angles respectively equal, and the corresponding side BH in the one equal to AD or AC in the other, are therefore equal (I. 20.), and consequently the side BR is equal to AN. The rectangle AB and BR, which is equivalent to the rhomboid AH, is hence equivalent to the rectangle contained by AB and AN (II. 1. cor.).





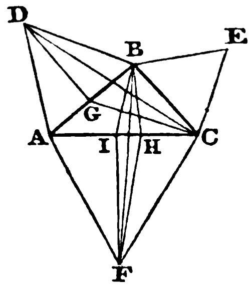
In the same manner, it may be demonstrated, by comparing the triangles BHS and PAC, that the rectangle under BC and BS, which is equivalent to the rhomboid CH, is equivalent to the rectangle contained by BC and CP. Wherefore the two rectangles of AB, AN and BC, CP are together equivalent to the square described on AC.

If the triangle ABC be, right-angled at the vertex B, the perpendiculars CN and AP will evidently meet at the vertex, and consequently the rectangles AB, AN and BC, CP will become the squares of AB and BC. And hence the beautiful Proposition II. 10. is derived, being only a remarkable case of a much more general property.

9. Proposition tenth. It may be proper to notice likewise an extension of this beautiful proposition, which is easily demonstrated, after a similar mode, from the decomposition of the figure.

Equilateral triangles described on the sides of a right-angled triangle, are together equivalent to an equilateral triangle described on the hypotenuse.

Let ABC be a right-angled triangle, around which are constructed the equilateral triangles ADB, BEC and CFA; the triangles ADB and BEC are equivalent to CFA.



For let fall the perpendiculars DG, BH and FI, and join CD, BF, CG, BI and HF. It is evident (I. 21.) that the perpendiculars DG and FI bisect the bases AB and AC, and divide the triangles ADB and CFA into two equal triangles. But the angle DAB is equal to CAF, being angles of an equilateral triangle: add BAC to each, and the whole angle DAC is equal to BAF. But the containing sides DA and AC are respectively equal to BA and AF, and consequently (I. 3.) the triangle ADC is equal to ABF. Now the triangle ADC is composed of the three triangles ACG, ADG, and DCG, and the triangle ABF is composed of ABI, AFI, and FBI; but, since AB and AC are bisected in G and I, the triangles ACG and ABI are (II. 2.) halves of the original triangle ABC, and consequently equivalent to each other. Wherefore the remaining triangles ADG and DCG are together equivalent to AFI and FBI. But DG and CB being both perpendicular to AB are (I. 22.) parallel; and, for the same reason, BH is parallel to FI. Whence (II. 1.) the triangle DCG is equivalent to DBG, and the triangle FBI equivalent to FHI; and therefore the triangles ADG and DBG, or the whole triangle ADB, must be equivalent to AFI and FHI, or the whole triangle AFH.—In like manner, it may be shown that the triangle BEC is equivalent to the triangle CFH; and consequently the equilateral triangles ADB and BEC are equivalent to AFH and CFH, which make up the whole triangle AFC.

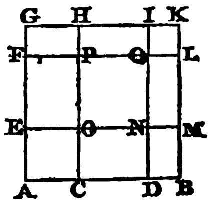
This demonstration is the second of those given by the celebrated Italian geometer Torricelli, the favourite disciple of Galileo, and inventor of the barometer.

10. A useful proposition may be introduced here:

The square described on a straight line, is equivalent to the squares of the segments into which it is divided, and twice the rectangles contained by each pair of these segments.

The square of AB is equivalent to the squares of AC, of CD and of DB, with twice the rectangles of AC, CD, of AC, DB, and of CD, DB.

For make AE and EF equal to AC and CD; draw EM, FL parallel to AB, and CH, DI parallel to AG.



It is manifest that AO is the square of AC, OQ the square of CD, and QK the square of DB. Nor is it less obvious that the two rectangles CN and EP are contained by AC, CD, that the two rectangles NL and PI are contained by CD, DB, and that the two rectangles DM and FH are contained by AC, DB. But those squares and those double rectangles complete the whole square of AB. Wherefore the truth of the Proposition is established.

Cor. Hence if a straight line be divided into three portions, the squares of the double segments AD, BC, together with twice the rectangle under the extreme segments AC, BD, are equivalent to the squares of the whole line AB and of the intermediate segment CD. For the squares FD, HM, together with the equal rectangles GP, NB, evidently fill up the whole square AB, with the repetition of the internal square OQ; that is, the squares of AD and BC, with twice the rectangle AC, DB, are equivalent to the squares of AB and CD.

11. Since rectangles correspond to numerical products, the properties of the sections of lines are easily derived from symbolical arithmetic or algebra:

1. In Prop. 14. let AC be denoted by a, and the segments of AB by b, c and d; then $a(b+c+d)=ab+ac+ad$.

2. In Prop. 15. let the two lines be denoted by a and b; then $(a+b)^2=a^2+b^2+2ab$.

3. In Prop. 16. let the two lines be denoted by a and b; then $(a-b)^2=a^2+b^2-2ab$.

4. In Prop. 17. let the two lines be denoted by a and b; then $(a+b)(a-b)=a^2-b^2$.

5. In the Proposition contained in the last paragraph of the notes of this Book, let the segments of the compound line be denoted by a, b and c; then

$(a+b+c)^2=a^2+b^2+c^2+2ab+2ac+2bc$.

6. In Prop. 18. let the two lines be denoted by a and b;

then $a^2+b^2=\frac{1}{2}(a+b)^2+\frac{1}{2}(a-b)^2=2\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2+2\left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2$.

7. In Prop. 19. let the whole line be denominated by a, and its greater segment by x; then $x^2=a(a-x)$, and $x^2+ax=a^2$, whence $x=\pm\sqrt{\frac{5a^2}{4}}-\frac{a}{2}=\pm a(\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}-\frac{1}{2})$. Hence, if unit represent the whole line, the greater segment is .61803398428, &c. and the smaller segment .38196601572, &c.

From Cor. 1. an extremely neat approximation is likewise obtained. Assuming the segments of the divided line as at first equal, and each denoted by 1, the following successive numbers will result from a continued summation:

1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, &c.

which are thus composed,

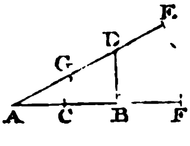
$1+2=3$, $2+3=5$, $3+5=8$, $5+8=13$, $8+13=21$, &c.

These numbers form, therefore, the simplest recurring series, a kind of approximation which, I find, was first noticed in this actual case early in the seventeenth century, by Girard, an ingenious Flemish mathematician.

Hence, if the original line contained 144 equal parts, its greater segment would include 89, and its smaller segment 55 of these parts, very nearly; but $55\times 144 = 7920$, being only one less than 7921, the square of 89.

12. Proposition nineteenth, cor. 2. This problem may, however, be constructed somewhat differently, without employing the collateral properties.

For bisect AB in C (I. 7.), draw (I. 5. cor.) the perpendicular BD equal to BC, join AD and continue it until DE be equal to DB or BC, and on AB produced take AF equal to AE: The line AF is the required extension of AB. For make DG equal to DB or BC; and because (II. 17. cor. 2.) the rectangle EA, AG, together with the square of DG or DB, is equivalent to the square of DA, or to the squares of AB and DB; the rectangle EA, AG, or FA, FB, is equivalent to the square of AB.



13. Proposition twenty-third. This proposition is of great use in practical geometry, since it enables us to divide a triangle, of which all the sides are given, into two right-angled triangles, by determining the position, and consequently the length, of the perpendicular.

Thus, suppose the base of the triangle to be 15, and the two sides 13 and 14: Then $15^2 + 13^2 - 14^2 = 225 + 169 - 196 = 198$, which shows that the perpendicular falls within the triangle; and $\frac{198}{30} = 6.6$, the segment adjacent to the short side, whence the perpendicular $= \sqrt{((13)^2-(6.6)^2)} = \sqrt{(169-43.56)} = 11.2$. The area is therefore $15 \times 5.6 = 84$.

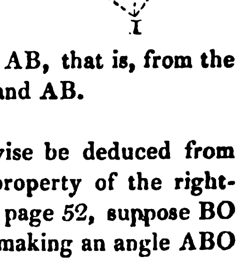
Again, if the base were 10, and the sides 21 and 17: Then $21^2-17^2-10^2 = 441 - 289 - 100 = 52$, which shows that the perpendicular falls somewhat beyond the base. Whence $\frac{52}{20} = 2.6$, the external segment; and $\sqrt{(17^2 - 2.6^2)} = \sqrt{(289-6.76)} = \sqrt{282.24} = 16.8$, which gives 84 for the area, the same as before, a very remarkable coincidence.

Lastly, let the base be 9, and the two sides 17 and 10: Then $17^2 - 9^2 - 10^2 = 289-81-100 = 108$, indicating that the perpendicular falls without the base. Wherefore, $\frac{108}{18} = 6$, the external segment, and $\sqrt{(10^2 - 6^2)} = \sqrt{(100-36)} =$

$\sqrt{64} = 8$, the perpendicular; which gives $\frac{9 \times 8}{2} \doteq 36$, for the area of the triangle.

The same results are obtained by applying the Twenty-First Proposition. Thus, in the first example, the distance of the perpendicular from the middle of the base is $\frac{14^2 - 13^2}{30} = .9$, and therefore the segments of the base are 8.4, and 6.6. In the second example, the distance of the perpendicular from the middle of the base is $\frac{17^2 - 10^2}{18} = 10.5$, and consequently the segments of the base are 15 and 6. In the last example, the distance of the perpendicular from the middle part of the base is $\frac{21^2 - 17^2}{20} = 76$, and the segments of that base are hence 12.6 and 2.6. The length of the perpendicular and the area of the triangle are, in each case, therefore, easily deduced from these data.

14. From the corollary to the last proposition is derived a very simple construction of the problem, *To find a square equivalent to a given rectangle.*



Let ABCD be the given rectangle, of which the side AD is greater than AB. In AB or its production, take AE equal to the half of AD and place it from E to F; then AF being joined, is the side of the equivalent square. For (II. 23. cor. El.) since the sides AE and EF of the triangle AEF are equal, the square of AF is equivalent to the rectangle under twice AE and AB, that is, from the construction, the rectangle under AD and AB.

The same construction might likewise be deduced from the demonstration of the celebrated property of the right-angled triangle. For, in the figure of page 52, suppose BO were drawn to the hypotenuse AC, making an angle ABO

equal to BAO or BAC; since the two acute angles are together equal to a right angle, the angle BCA is equal to the remaining portion CBO of the right angle at B, and consequently the triangles AOB and COB are isosceles, and the sides OA, OB and OC all equal. Wherefore AB, the side of a square equivalent to the rectangle ADMN or that under AK and AN, is determined by making AO equal to the half of AK or AC and inserting it from O to B.—The inspection of the same figure also points out the mode of dissecting the rectangle, and thence compounding the square; for a perpendicular let fall from K on AB is evidently equal to GB or AB. Hence, on AF, in the original construction, let fall the perpendicular DG, transpose the triangle FBA in the situation DHI, and slide the quadrilateral portion into the place of KAHI; the rectangle ABCD is now transformed into the square KGDI.—A slight modification will be required when AB is less than the half of AD.

In this construction of the problem, the application of the circle which (III. 37. El.) is indispensably required, is only not brought into view.—When the side AD is double of AB, the point G coincides with F, and the rectangle is resolved into three triangles, which combine to form a square.

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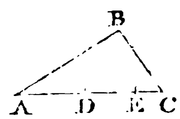
15. To this Book some neat propositions may be subjoined.

PROP. I. THEOR.

If, from the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, portions be cut off equal to the adjacent sides; the square of the middle segment thus formed, is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by the extreme segments.

Let ABC be a triangle which is right-angled at B; from the hypotenuse AC, cut off AE equal to AB, and CD equal

to CB: Twice the rectangle under AD and CE is equivalent to the square of DE.



For the straight line AC being divided into three portions, the squares of AE and CD, together with twice the rectangle AD, CE are equivalent to the squares of AC and DE (art. 10.) But the squares of AB and BC, or those of AE and CD, are equivalent to the square of AC (II. 10.). There consequently remains twice the rectangle AD, CE equivalent to the square of DE.

By an inverse process of reasoning it will appear, that if twice the rectangle AD, CE be equal to the square of DE, the straight line AC, so composed, is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, of which AB and BC are the sides.

This proposition, which I believe first appeared in these Elements, will furnish another convenient method of discovering the numbers which represent the sides of a right-angled triangle: For since $DE^2=2\,AD.CE$, it is evident that $\frac{1}{2}DE^2=AD.CE$; and consequently expressing DE by an even whole number, and resolving half of its square into the factors AD and CE, $AD+DE$ and $CE+DE$ will represent the two sides, and $AD+CE+DE$ the hypotenuse. Thus, if 2 be taken, the factors of half its square are 1 and 2, which produce the numbers 3, 4, and 5. Again, if 4 be assumed, the factors are 2 and 4, or 1 and 8; whence result these numbers, 6, 8, and 10, or 5, 12, and 13. In this way a very great variety of numbers can be found, to express the sides of a right-angled triangle.

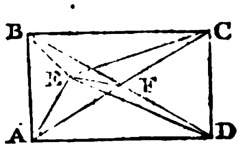
PROP. II. THEOR.

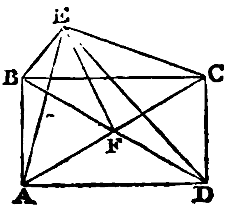
The squares of lines drawn from any point to the opposite corners of a rectangle are together equivalent.

If from a point E, either within or without the rectangle ABCD, straight lines be drawn to the four corners, the

squares of AE, EC are together equivalent to the squares of BE, ED.

For join E with F, the intersection of the diagonals AC, BD. Because it follows readily from Prop. 27. Book I. that these diagonals are equal, and bisect each other, the lines AF, BF, CF, and DF are all equal. Wherefore the squares of AE, EC are equivalent to twice the square of AF, and twice the square of EF (II. 22.); and the squares of BE, ED are likewise equivalent to twice the square of BF and twice the same square of EF; consequently, the squares of AF and BF being equal, the squares of AE, EC, are together equivalent to the squares of BE, ED.



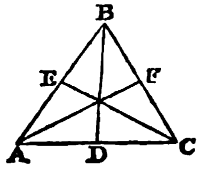


PROP. III. THEOR.

If straight lines be drawn from the angular points of a triangle to bisect the opposite sides, thrice the squares of these sides are together equivalent to four times the squares of the bisecting lines.

Let the sides of the triangle ABC be bisected in D, E, and F, and straight lines drawn from these points to the opposite vertices; thrice the squares of the sides AB, BC, and AC are together equivalent to four times the squares of BD, CE and AF.

For, by Proposition II. 22. the squares of AB, BC are equivalent to twice the square of BD and twice the square of AD, that is, half the square of AC; the squares of BC, AC are equivalent to twice the squares of CE and half the square of AB; and the squares of AC, AB are equivalent to twice the square of AF and half the



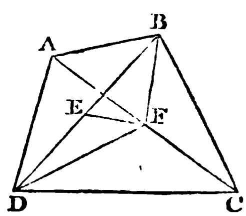
square of BC. Whence the squares of the sides of the triangle repeated twice, are equivalent to twice the squares of BD, CE, and AF, with half the squares of the sides of the triangle. Consequently four times the squares of AB, BC, and AC are equivalent to four times the squares of BD, CE, and AF, with once the squares of AB, BC, and AC; wherefore thrice the squares of the sides AB, BC, and AC are together equivalent to four times the squares of the bisecting lines BD, CE, and AF.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

The squares of the sides of a quadrilateral figure are together equivalent to the squares of its diagonals, together with four times the square of the straight line joining their middle points.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure, in which the straight lines AC, BD, drawn to the opposite corners, are bisected at the points E, F; the squares of AB, BC, CD, and DA, are together equivalent to the squares of AC, BD, together with four times the square of EF.

For join EF, and because AC is bisected in F, the squares of AB and BC are equivalent to twice the square of AF and twice the square of BF (II. 22.); and, for the same reason, the squares of CD and DA are equivalent to twice the square of AF and twice the square of DF. Consequently the squares of all the sides AB, BC, CD, and DA, are equivalent to four times the square of AF, or the square of AC—with twice the squares of BF and of DF. But twice the square of BF and DF is equivalent (II. 22.) to four times the square of BE, or the square of BD, with four times the square of EF; whence the squares of all the sides of the quadrilateral figure are together equivalent to the squares of its diagonals AC, BD, with four times the square



of the straight line EF which joins their points of equal section.

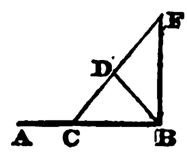
This general theorem seems to have been first given by the illustrious Leonard Euler in the Petersburg Memoirs. It evidently comprehends the twenty-fourth Proposition of this Book; for when the quadrilateral figure becomes a rhomboid, the diagonals bisect each other, and the middle points E and F coincide; whence the squares of all the sides are equivalent simply to the squares of those diagonals.—If this rhomboid again becomes a rectangle, it will have equal diagonals, and consequently, as in the 10th Proposition of the Second Book, the squares of the sides of a right-angled triangle are equivalent to the square of the hypotenuse.

BOOK III.

1. Proposition fifteenth. Hence angles are sometimes measured by a circular instrument, from a point in the circumference, as well as from the centre.

2. Proposition eighteenth. On this proposition depends the construction of amphitheatres; for the visual magnitude of an object is measured by the angle which it subtends at the eye, and consequently the whole extent of the stage, the intermediate objects being purposely darkened or obscured, will be seen with equal advantage by every spectator seated in the same arc of a circle.

3. Proposition twenty-second. To *erect* a perpendicular, any point D is taken, as in Prop. 34. Book I., and from it a circle is described passing through C and B; the diameter CDF, by its intersection at the point B, determines the position of the perpendicular BF. To *let fall* a perpendicular, draw to AB any



straight line FC, which bisect in D, and from this point as a centre describe a circle through the points C, B and F; FB is the perpendicular required.

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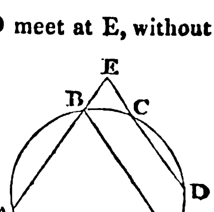
4. To this Book may be subjoined some useful propositions.

PROP. I. THEOR.

The inclination of two straight lines is equal to the angle terminated at the circumference by the sum or difference of the arcs which they intercept, according as their vertex is within or without the circle.

If the two straight lines AB and CD intersect each other in the point E within a circle; the angle AED which they form, is equal to an angle at the circumference and standing on the sum of the intercepted arcs AD and BC.

For draw the chord BF parallel to CD. Because ED and BF are parallel, the angle AED (I. 22.) is equal to the interior angle ABF, which stands on the arc AF, but since the chords BF and CD are parallel, the arc BC is equal to DF (III. 18.) and consequently the arc AF, which terminates at the circumference an angle equal to AED, is the sum of the two intercepted arcs AD and BC.



Again, if the straight lines AB and CD meet at E, without the circle, their inclination AED is equal to an angle at the circumference, having for its base the excess of the arc AD above BC.

For BF being drawn parallel to CD, the arc BC is equal to FD, and consequently the arc AF is the excess of AD above BC; but the angle ABF which stands on AF, is equal to the interior angle AED.

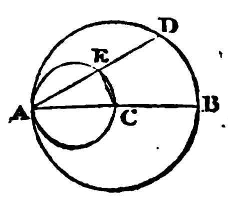
Cor. Hence if two chords intersect each other at right angles within a circle, the opposite intercepted arcs are equal to the semicircumference.

On this proposition depends the method of correcting the errors of the centre in astronomical instruments, by taking the mean of the opposite readings. Another advantage is derived from it in practice; for an angle may be hence measured by help of a circular protractor without the trouble of applying the centre to its vertex or the point of concourse of the sides. The same principle is likewise applicable to the construction of some optical instruments, adapted to measure lateral angles by the intersection of micrometer wires.

PROP. II. THEOR.

If a circle be described on the radius of another circle, any straight line drawn from the point where they meet to the outer circumference, is bisected by the interior one.

Let AEC be a circle described on the radius AC of the circle ADB, and AD a straight line drawn from A to terminate in the exterior circumference; the part AE in the smaller circle is equal to the part ED intercepted between the two circumferences.



For join CE. And because AEC is a semicircle, the angle contained in it is a right angle (III. 19.); consequently the straight line CE, drawn from the centre C, is perpendicular to the chord AD, and therefore (III. 4.) bisects it.

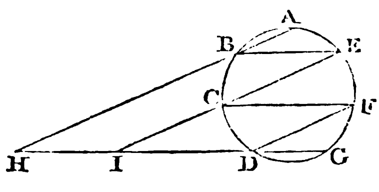
It is obvious, that an instrument could be constructed on this principle, to bisect any inflected line AD.

PROP. III. THEOR.

If, on each side of any point in the circumference of a circle, equal arcs be repeated; the chords which join the opposite points of section will be together equal to the last chord extended till it meets a straight line drawn through the middle point and either extremity of the first chord.

Let DAG be the circumference of a circle, in which the arcs AB, BC, CD on the one side of a point A, and the corresponding arcs AE, EF, FG on the other side, are all assumed equal; the chords BE, CF, and DG, are together equal to the line GH, formed by extending GD till it meets the production of AB.

For join FD and CE, and produce this to meet GH in the point I.



Because the arcs BC and CD are equal to EF and FG, the chords BE, CF, and DG are parallel; but, for the same reason, since the arcs BC and CD are equal to AE and EF, the chords BA, CE and DF are likewise parallel. Hence the figures HBEI and ICFD are rhomboids, and therefore the extended chord GH, being composed of the segments HI, ID, and DG, is equal to the sum of their opposite chords BE, CF and DG.—It is obvious that the same train of reasoning may be pursued to any number of equal arcs. If the circumference be divided into an even number of parts, the points D and G will evidently coincide, and the limiting line HG pass into a tangent.

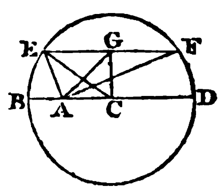
This simple, but very curious proposition, is noticed, where it would certainly not be expected—in Scaliger *de Subtilitate.*

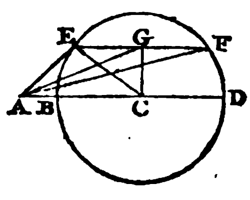
PROP. IV. THEOR.

If from any point in the diameter of a circle or its extension, straight lines be drawn to the ends of a parallel chord; the squares of these lines are together equivalent to the squares of the segments into which the diameter is divided.

Let BEFD be a circle, and from the point A in its extended diameter the straight lines AE and AF be drawn to the ends of the parallel chord EF; the squares of AE and AF are together equivalent to the squares of AB and AD.

For, from the centre C, let fall the perpendicular CG upon EF (I. 6.), and join AG and CE.





Because CG cuts the chord EF at right angles, GE is equal to GF (III. 4.); wherefore the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the squares of AG and GE (II. 22.) But ACG being a right-angled triangle, the square of AG is equivalent to the squares of AC and CG II. 10.), or twice the square of AG is equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CG. Wherefore the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the three squares of AC, CG, and GE. Of these, the two squares of CG and GE are equivalent to the square of CE or CB, for the triangle CGE is right-angled. Consequently the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CB. But the straight line BD being cut equally at C and unequally at A, the squares of the unequal segments AB and AD are together equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CB (II. 18. cor.); whence the squares of AE and AF are together equivalent to the squares of AB and AD.

Cor. If the point coincide with the extremity of the diame-

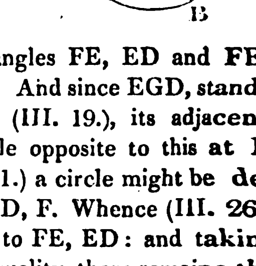
ter, it is evident that the squares of the chords AE and AF must be equivalent to the square of the diameter or four times the square of the radius.

PROP. V. THEOR.

The rectangle under the segments of a chord is greater or less than the rectangle under the segments into which a perpendicular from the point of section divides a diameter, by the square of that perpendicular—according as it lies without or within the circle.

Let the perpendicular CF be let fall from a point C in the chord ACB upon a diameter DE; the rectangle BC, CA, is greater or less than the rectangle EF, FD, by the square of the perpendicular CF, according as this lies without or within the circle.

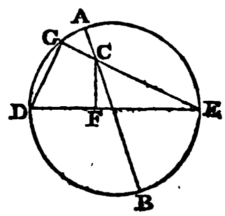
First, let the perpendicular CF lie without the circle, and join CE and DG.



The square of the hypotenuse CE is equivalent to the squares of FE and CF (II. 10.). But the square of CE is composed of the rectangles CE, EG, and CE, CG (II. 14.); and the square of FE is composed of the rectangles FE, ED, and FE, FD: Wherefore the rectangles CE, EG and CE, CG are equivalent to the rectangles FE, ED and FE, FD, together with the square of CF. And since EGD, standing in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 19.), its adjacent angle CGD is also right, and the angle opposite to this at F is right; consequently (III. 17. cor. 1.) a circle might be described through the four points C, G, D, F. Whence (III. 26.) the rectangle CE, EG is equivalent to FE, ED: and taking these from the terms of the former equality, there remains the rectangle CE, CG, that is, (III. 26.) AC, CB, equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD, together with the square of CF.

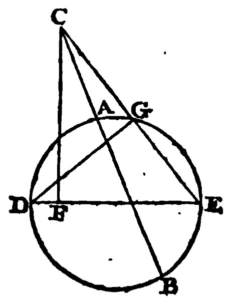
Next, let the perpendicular CF lie within the circle.

The same construction being made, the rectangle CE, EG is still equivalent to the rectangle FE, ED. But the rectangle CE, EG is (II. 14.) equivalent to the rectangle CE, CG, and the square of CE, or the squares of FE and CF; and the rectangle FE, ED is equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD and the square of FE. From these equal quantities, therefore, take away the common square of FE, and there remains the rectangle CE, CG, or AC, CB, with square are of CF, equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD.



Lastly, if the perpendicular CF lie partly without and partly within the circle, the Proposition must be slightly modified.

The former construction being retained: Because the square of CE is equivalent to the squares of CF and FE, the rectangles CE, EG and CE, CG are together equivalent to the square of CF and the difference between the rectangle FE, ED and FE, FD; but the rectangle CE, EG is equivalent to the rectangle FE, ED, and consequently the rectangle CE, CG, or the rectangle AC, CB, is equivalent to the difference between the square of CF and the rectangle FE, FD.

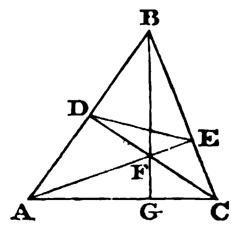


In the first case, if the square of FH be equivalent to the rectangle FD, FE, the square of CH will be likewise equivalent to the rectangle CG, CE; for the rectangle AC, CB, being equivalent to the rectangle FD, FE, or the square of FH, together with the square of CF, must (II. 10. El.) be equivalent to the square of CH.

PROP. VI. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the vertex of a triangle through the intersection of two perpendiculars from the extremities of the base to the opposite sides, is likewise perpendicular to the base.

In the triangle ABC, the straight line BFG drawn from the vertex B through F, the intersection of the perpendiculars AE and CD from A and C upon the opposite sides CB and AB is perpendicular to the base AC.



For join DE. Because BDF and BEF are right angles, the quadrilateral figure DBEF (III. 17. cor. 1.) is contained in a circle; and for the same reason, the quadrilateral ADEC is contained in a circle. Wherefore the exterior angle BDE (III. 17. cor. 2.) is equal to ACE; but (III. 16.) BDE is equal to the angle BFE in the same segment, which is therefore equal to ACE or GCE, and consequently the quadrilateral CEFG is also contained in a circle. Whence (III. 17.) the opposite angles CEF and CGF are equal to two right angles, and CEF being a right angle by hypothesis, CGF must likewise be right; or the straight line BFG is perpendicular to the base AC.

PROP. VII. PROB.

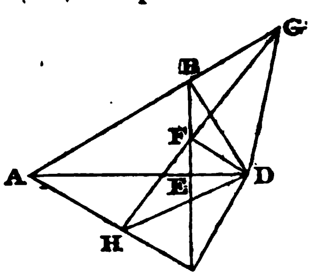
Through a given point, between two diverging straight lines, to draw a straight line that shall have equal segments terminated by them.

Let AB and AC be two diverging straight lines given in a position, and F an intermediate point, through which it is re-

quired to draw GFH, such that the intercepted segments FG and FH shall be equal.

This may be easily effected, by drawing from F a parallel to AC, and doubling the portion of AG so cut off, from A to G, to mark the position of GFH. But the problem may be constructed in another way, which, though more complex, is important in its application to the Theory of Lines of the Second Order.

Draw AD bisecting the angle BAC, and upon it let fall the perpendicular FE, which produce both ways to B and C; from B erect BD perpendicular to AB, join DF; and EFH, being drawn perpendicular to it, is the line required.



For join DC, DG and DH. The right-angled triangles ABD and ACD are (I. 20.) equal, and consequently BDC is isosceles. But GBD and GFD being right angles, and therefore equal, the quadrilateral figure GB, FD (III. 16.) is contained in a circle, and hence the angle DGF is equal to DBF; for the same reason, since DCH and DFH are right angles, the quadrilateral figure DCHF is likewise contained in a circle, and hence the angle DHF is equal to DCF. Consequently the angle DGF is equal to DHF, and the right-angled triangles DFG and DFH are equal, and the base FG equal to FH.

If the point F were taken in the extension of the line EB, the perpendicular to DF may then be shown to have equal segments intercepted by the sides of the exterior angle formed by AG and the productions of CA beyond the vertical point A.

If a circle were described from the centre D through the points B and C, and cutting GH in I and K, it was already observed by Pappus, that GI is equal to HK, and FG to FH.

BOOK IV.

1. The equilateral triangle, the square, the pentagon, the hexagon, and other polygons derived from these, were the only regular figures known to the Greeks. The inscription of all the rest has for ages been supposed absolutely to transcend the powers of elementary geometry. But a curious and most unexpected discovery was lately made by Mr Gauss, now Professor of Astronomy in the University of Göttingen, who has demonstrated, in a work entitled *Disquisitiones Arithmeticæ*, published at Brunswick in 1801, that certain very complex polygons can yet be described merely by help of circles. Thus, a regular polygon containing 17, 257, 65537, &c. sides, is capable of being inscribed, by the application of elementary geometry; and in general, when the number of sides may be denoted by $2_n + 1$, and is at the same time a prime number. The investigation of this principle is rather intricate, being founded on the arithmetic of sines and the theory of equations; and the constructions to which it would lead are hence, in every case, unavoidably and most excessively complicated. Thus, the cosine of the several arcs arising from the division of the circumference of a circle into seventeen equal parts, are all contained in this very involved expression:

$$-\tfrac{1}{16}+\tfrac{1}{16}\sqrt{17}+\tfrac{1}{16}\sqrt{(34-2\sqrt{17})}-$$
$$\tfrac{1}{8}\sqrt{(17+3\sqrt{17}-\sqrt{(34-2\sqrt{17})}-2\sqrt{(34+2\sqrt{17})})}$$

As the radicals may be taken either additive or subtractive, their various combinations, rightly disposed, will produce eight distinct results.

Let π denote the circumference; then

$$\cos\frac{2\pi}{17}=\cos\frac{32\pi}{17}=.9324722294,\ \cos\frac{4\pi}{17}=\cos\frac{8\pi}{17}=$$

$$.7390089172,\ \cos\frac{6\pi}{7}=\cos\frac{28\pi}{17}=.4457383558,\ \cos\frac{8\pi}{17}=\cos\frac{26\pi}{17}-$$

$= .0922683595$, $\cos\frac{10\pi}{17} = \cos\frac{24\pi}{17} = -.27366229901$,

$\cos\frac{12\pi}{17} = \cos\frac{22\pi}{17} = -.6026346364$, $\cos\frac{14\pi}{17} = \cos\frac{20\pi}{17} =$

$-.8502171357$, and $\cos\frac{16\pi}{17} = \cos\frac{18\pi}{17} = -.9829730997$.

On this very curious subject the inquisitive student is referred to the article "Equations," just published in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, by my illustrious friend Mr Ivory, of which we have reason to be proud, as the most able, original and profound dissertation that has yet appeared.

2. Pythagoras was the first who remarked the simple property, that only three regular figures,—the square, the equilateral triangle, and the hexagon,—can be constituted about a point. Here the mystic philosopher might again admire the union of the *monad* with the *triad*.—It may not be superfluous perhaps to observe, that on this property is founded the adaptation of patchwork, and the construction of tessellated pavement.

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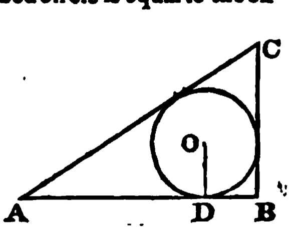
3. Several interesting propositions may be annexed to this Book.

PROP. I. THEOR.

The diameter of a circle inscribed in a right-angled triangle is equal to the excess of the base and perpendicular above the hypotenuse.

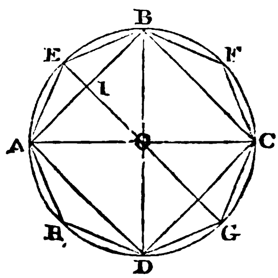
Twice the radius OD of the inscribed circle is equal to the excess of the sides AB and BC above the hypotenuse AC. For quadruple the area of the triangle is equivalent to 2OD (AD + BC + AC) and to 2AB.BC; but 2AB.BC = $(AB + BC)^2 - AB^2 - BC^2 = (AB+BC)^2 - AC^2 =$ (II. 17. El.) (AB+BC+AC)(AB+BC-AC;) and consequently 2OD = AB + BC — AC.



PROP. II. THEOR.

The square of the side of a regular octagon inscribed in a circle, is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the radius and the difference between the diameter and the side of the inscribed square.

Let ABCD be a square inscribed in a circle, and AEBFCGDH an octagon, which is formed evidently by the bisection of the quadrants AB, BC, CD, and DA: The square of AE is equivalent to the rectangle under AO and the difference between AB and AC.



For draw the diameter EG. It is manifest, that the triangles AIO and BIO are right-angled and isosceles; and because AO is equal to EO, and AI perpendicular to it,—the square of AE (II. 23. cor. El.) is equivalent to twice the rectangle under EO and EI, or the rectangle under AO and twice EI. But EI is the difference of EO and IO, and twice EI is, therefore, equal to the difference of twice EO or AC and twice IO or AB. Whence the square of AE, the side of the octagon, is equivalent to the rectangle under the radius and the difference of the diameter and AB the side of the inscribed square.

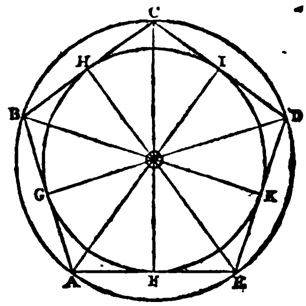
PROP. III. THEOR.

To inscribe and circumscribe a circle in and about a given regular pentagon.

Let ABCDE be a regular pentagon, in which it is required to inscribe a circle.

Draw AO and EO to bisect the angles at A and E, let fall the perpendicular OF, and from O as the centre, with the distance OF, describe a circle FGHIK: This circle will touch the pentagon internally.

For, from the point O, let fall the perpendiculars on the opposite sides of the figure. The angles EAO and AEO, being the halves of the angles of the pentagon, are equal, and consequently the triangle AOE is isosceles, and the perpendicular OF bisects the base. And the triangles AOG and BOG, having the angles OAG and OGA equal to OBG and OGB and the common side OG are (I. 20.) equal. Again, the triangles BOG and BOH have now the angles OBG and OGB equal to OBH and OHB, with the side BO common to both, and are therefore equal. In like manner all the triangles about the centre O are proved to be equal; consequently the perpendiculars OF, OG, OH, OI, and OK are equal, and the circle touches the pentagon in the points F, G, H, I, and K.



Next, let it be required to describe a circle about the pentagon.

From the same centre O, with the distance OA, describe a circle: It will pass through the points B, C, D, E; for the triangles about O being all equal, the straight lines OA, OB, OC, OD, and OE must be likewise equal.

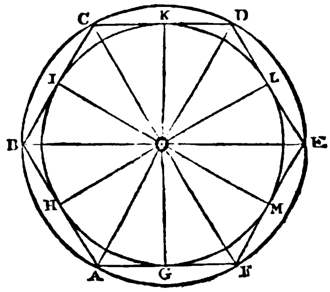
PROP. IV. THEOR.

In and about a regular hexagon, to inscribe and circumscribe a circle.

Let ABCDEF be a regular hexagon, in which it is required to inscribe a circle.

Draw AO and FO, bisecting the angles BAF and AFE (I. 5.); and from the point of intersection O, with its distance from the side AF, describe a circle: This circle will touch the hexagon internally.

For let fall perpendiculars from O upon the sides of the figure. It may be demonstrated, as in the last proposition, that the triangles AOB, BOC, COD, DOE, and EOF are all equal to AOF; and, in like manner, it will appear that the intermediate bisected triangles are equal. Hence the perpendiculars OG, OH, OI, OK, OL, and OM, are all equal, and a circle must touch these at the points, G, H, I, K, L, and M.



Again, let it be required to describe a circle about the hexagon.

From the same point O, as a centre, with the distance OA, describe a circle, which must pass though the points B, C, D, E, and F; for the straight lines OA, OB, OC, OD, OE, and OF were proved to be equal.

Cor. Hence, in any regular polygon, the centre of the inscribing and circumscribing circle is the same, and may be determined in general, by drawing lines to bisect the adjacent angles of the figure.

BOOK V.

DEFINITIONS.

1. The words λογος in Greek and *ratio* in Latin, signifying *reason* or *manner of thought*, indicate vaguely a philosophical conception. The compound term ἀναλογια comes nearer to this idea; but its correlative, *proportio*, marks very distinctly a radical similarity of composition.

The doctrine of proportion has been a source of much controversy. In their mode of treating that important subject, authors differ widely; some rejecting the procedure of Euclid as circuitous and embarrassed, while others appear disposed

to extol it as one of the happiest and most elaborate monuments of human ingenuity. But, to view the matter in its true light, we should endeavour previously to dispel that mist which has so long obscured our vision. The fifth Book of Euclid, in its original form, is not found to answer the purpose of actual instruction; and this remarkable and indisputed fact might alone excite a suspicion of its intrinsic excellence. The great object which the framer of the Elements had proposed to himself, by adopting such an artificial definition of proportion, was to obviate the difficulties arising from the consideration of incommensurable quantities. Under the shelter of a certain indefinitude of principle, he has contrived rather to evade those difficulties than fairly to meet them. Euclid seems not indeed to grasp the subject with a steady and comprehensive hold. In his Seventh Book, which treats of the properties of number, he abandons his former definition of proportion, for another that is more natural, though imperfectly developed. Through the whole contexture of the Elements, we may discern the influence of that mysticism which prevailed in the Platonic school. The language sometimes used in the Fifth Book would imply, that ratios are not mere conceptions of the mind, but have a real and substantial essence.

The obscurity that confessedly pervades the fifth book of Euclid being thus occasioned solely by the attempt to extend the definition of proportion to the case of incommensurables, the theory of which is contained in his tenth book—the pertinacity of modern editors of the Elements in retaining such an intricate definition, appears the more singular, since, omitting all the books relating to the properties of numbers, they have not given the slightest intimation respecting even the existence of incommensurable quantities.

The notion of proportionality involves in it necessarily th idea of *number*. The doctrine of proportion hence constitutes a branch of universal arithmetic; and had I not, on this occasion, yielded to the prevalence of custom, I should, after the example of M. Legendre, have rejected it from the Elements of Geometry, and deferred the consideration of the subject till

I came to treat of Algebra, where it is sometimes indeed given, but in a very contracted and insufficient form. The properties themselves are extremely simple, and may be regarded as only the exposition of the same principle under different aspects. The various transformations of which analogies are susceptible, resemble exactly the changes usually effected in the reduction of equations.

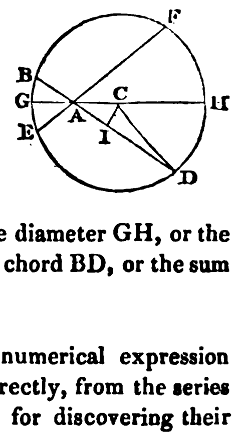
According to Euclid, " the first of four magnitudes is said to have the same ratio to the second which the third has to the fourth, when any equimultiples whatsoever of the first and third being taken, and any equimultiples whatsoever of the second and fourth ; if the multiple of the first be less than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also less than that of the fourth ; or, if the multiple of the first be equal to that of the second, the multiple of the third is also equal to that of the fourth ; or, if the multiple of the first be greater than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also greater than that of the fourth." This definition, however perplexed and verbose, is yet easily derived from that which appears to furnish the simplest and most natural criterion of proportionality: For, let $A : B :: C : D$; it was stated as a fundamental principle, that, if the mth part of A be contained n times in B, the mth part of C will likewise be contained n times in D. Whence $nA=mB$, and $nC=mD$; which is the basis of Euclid's definition. But when the terms are incommensurable, such equality cannot *absolutely* subsist. In this case, no single trial would be sufficient for ascertaining proportionality. It is required that, *every* multiple whatever, mA, being greater or less than nB,—the corresponding multiple, mC, shall likewise be constantly greater or less than nD. Actually to apply the definition is therefore impossible ; nor does it even assist us at all in directing our search. In the natural mode of proceeding, by assuming successively a smaller divisor, we are, at each time, brought nearer to the incommensurable limit. But Euclid's famous definition leaves us to grope at random for its object, and to seek our escape, by having recourse to some auxiliary train of reasoning or induction.

The author of the Elements has likewise given what Dr Barrow calls a *metaphysical* definition of ratio: "Ratio is a mutual relation of two *magnitudes* of the same kind to one another, in respect of *quantity*." This sentence, as it now stands, appears either tautological, or altogether devoid of meaning; and Dr Simson, anxious for the credit of Euclid, considers it, in his usual manner, as the interpolation of some unskilful editor. I am inclined to think, however, that the passage will admit of a version which is not only intelligible, but conveys a most correct idea of the nature of ratio. The original runs thus: *Λογος εστι δυο μεγεθων ὁμογενων ἡ κατα Πηλικοτητα προς αλληλα ποια σχεσις.* Now the term *πηλικος*, on which the whole evidence hinges, though commonly rendered *quantus*, may be translated *quotus*, as expressing either *magnitude* or *multitude*. In its primitive sense, it probably denoted *number*, and came afterwards to signify *quantity*, as this word itself has, in the French language, undergone the reverse process. In confirmation of this opinion, it may be stated, that the relative term *ἡλικια* properly denotes *age*, and thence *stature* or *size*. According to this interpretation, therefore, "Ratio is a certain mutual habitude of two homogeneous magnitudes with respect to *quotity*, or numerical composition."

It is very unfortunate that, from the poverty of language, and the slow progress of science, the terms used in common life, though unavoidably deficient in precision, were adopted into Geometry. But the vagueness of expression is nowhere more apparent than in what concerns Proportion.—Thus, the words denoting *time* are, in most dialects, blended with those which signify *number*. To express how often a part is contained in a whole, we intimate how many *ways* it is to be placed, how many *foldings* are required, or how many *times* the operation of admeasurement must be repeated. In the Greek and Latin languages, the adverbs compounded from *plica*, *a fold*, are very extensive. In English, the corresponding terms are limited, and mark too obviously their composition: for *duplex*, *triplex*, *quadruplex*, we have *double*, *triple* or *quadruple*, *twofold*, *threefold* or *fourfold*. But our application of the word *way* is still more confined: we have only *twice* and *thrice*,

or *two ways* and *three ways*. When we seek to go farther, we are absolutely obliged to borrow the word *time;* thus, we say that one number is four or five *times* greater than another; or that it would require the addition of the part so often, to form the whole. The German language involves the same idea without bringing it so prominently forward; the termination *mal*, the same originally with our word *meal*, referring to the regular succession of the hours of refreshment. The French is in this instance more happy, the term *fois*, derived from *voye*, in the Latin and Italian *via*, *a way*, having been abridged from *toutevoye* or *always*, and converted into a general adverb.

2. Proposition fourteenth. This proposition is easily derived from geometry; for, since of proportional lines the rectangle under the extremes is equal to that of the means, the segments AG and AH of the diameter in the figure are (III. 7. El.) the greatest and least terms of an analogy, of which AB and AD are the intermediate terms, and consequently (III. 6. El.) the diameter GH, or the sum of AG and AH, is greater than the chord BD, or the sum of AB and AD.



3. Proposition twenty-seventh. The numerical expression of the ratio A : B, may be deduced indirectly, from the series of quotients obtained in the operation for discovering their common measure.

Let A contain B, m times, with a remainder C; B contain C, n times, with a remainder D; and, lastly, suppose C to contain D, p times, with a remainder E, and which is contained in D, q times exactly. Then $D=qE$, $C=pD+E$, $B=nC+D$, and $A=mB+C$; whence the terms D, C, B, and A, are successively computed, as multiples of E; A and B will, therefore, be found to contain E their common measure K and L times, or the numerical expression for the ratio of those quantities is K : L.

It is more convenient, however, to derive the numerical ratio, from the quotients of subdivision in their natural order; and this method has besides the peculiar advantage of exhibiting a succession of elegant approximations.

The quantities A, B, C, D, &c. are determined as before by these conditions: $A=mB+C$, $B=nC+D$, $C=pD+E$, $D=qE+F$, &c. But other expressions will arise from substitution: For,

1. $A=mB+C=m(nC+D)+C=(mn+1)C+mD$, or, putting $m.n+1=m'$, $A=m'C+mD$.

2. $A=m'C+mD=m'(pD+E)+mD=(m'p+m)D+m'E$, or, putting $m'.p+m=m''$, $A=m''D+m'E$.

3. $A=m''D+m'E=m''(qE+F)+m'E=(m''q+m')E+m''F$, or, putting $m''.q+m'=m'''$, $A=m'''E+m''F$.

Again, the successive values of B are developed in the same manner:

1. $B=nC+D=n(pD+E)+D=(np+1)D+nE$, or, putting $n.p+1=n'$, $B=n'D+nE$.

2. $B=n'D+nE=n'(qE+F)+nE=(n'q+n)E+n'F$, or, putting $n'.q+n=n''$, $B=n''E+n'F$.

These results will be more apparent in a tabular form:

$A=mB+C$,	$B=nC+D$,
$=m'C+mD$,	$=n'D+nE$,
$=m''D+m'E$,	$=n''E+n'F$,
$=m'''E+m''F$,	&c.
&c.	

The substitutions are thus arranged:

$m.n+1=m'$,	$n.p+1=n'$,
$m'.p+m=m''$,	$n'.q+n=n''$,
$m''.q+m'=m'''$,	&c.
&c.	

Whence, the law of the formation of the successive quantities, is easily perceived.

But, to find the ratio of A to B, it is not requisite to know the values of the remainders C, D, E, &c. Suppose the subdivision to terminate at B; then $A=mB$, and consequently $A : B$, as $mB : B$, or $m : 1$. If the subdivision extend to C, then $A=m'C$, and $B=nC$; whence $A : B$, as $m' : n$. In general, therefore, the second term, in the expressions for A and B, may be rejected, and the letter which precedes it considered as the ultimate measure, and corresponding to the arithmetical unit. Hence, resuming the substitutions, and combining the whole in one view, it follows, that the ratio of A to B may thus be successively represented:

1. $m : 1$.
2. $mn+1 : n$, or $m' : n$.
3. $m'p+m : np+1$, or $m'' : n'$.
4. $m''q+m' : n'q+n$, or $m''' : n''$.

&c. &c. &c.

The formation of these numbers will evidently stop, when the corresponding subdivision terminates. But even though the successive decomposition should never terminate, as in the case of incommensurable quantities,—yet the expression thus obtained must constantly approach to the ratio of $A : B$, since they suppose only the omission of the remainder of the last division, and which is perpetually diminishing.

Nothing can be more useful in practice than these approximations, which include the principle of continued fractions.

4. Proposition twenty-ninth. The same conclusion is derived from the division of surds. Thus $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{1}=1+\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1}=\frac{\sqrt{2}+1}{1}=2+\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{1}$, and then continually the expansion of the same residue $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1}$, which therefore gives 2 as a repeated integral quotient. Hence m being 1, and n, p, q, r, &c. all equal to 2, the successive approximations are, by the last note, 1 : 1, 2 : 3, 5 : 7, 12 : 17, 29 : 41, 70 : 99, &c. The ratios of the squares of these numbers are 4 : 9, 25 : 49, 144 : 289, 841 : 1681, 4900 : 9801, thus approaching rapidly to the ratio of *one* to *two*, but alternately in excess and defect.

BOOK VI.

1. Proposition first. The consideration of diverging lines furnishes the simplest and readiest means, for transferring the doctrine of proportion to geometrical figures. The order which Euclid has followed, beginning with parallelograms, and thence passing from surfaces to lines, appears to be less natural.

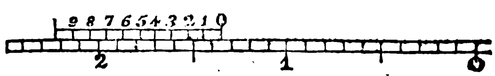
2. Proposition fourth. It will be proper here to notice the several methods adopted in practice, for the minute subdivision of lines. The earliest of these—the *diagonal scale*—depending immediately on the proposition in the text, is of the most extensive use, and constituted the first improvement on astronomical instruments.

Thus, in the figure annexed, the extreme portion of the horizontal line is divided into ten equal parts, each of which again is virtually subdivided into ten secondary parts. The subdivision is affected by means of diagonal lines, which decline from the perpendicular by intervals equal to the primary divisions, and which are cut transversely into ten equal segments by equidistant parallels. Suppose, for example, it were required to find the length of 2 and 38—100 parts of a division; place one foot of the compasses in the second vertical line at the eight interval which is marked with a dot, and extend the other foot, along the parallel, to the dot on the third diagonal. The distance between these dots may, however, express indifferently 2.38, 23.8, or 238, according to the assumed magnitude of the primary unit.

Nunez, or Nonius, a very able mathematician, in a treatise *De Crepusculis*, printed at Lisbon in 1542, proposed one more complicated. He placed a number of parallel scales, or concentric circles, differently divided, and forming a regular ascending gradation of 89, 88, 87, &c. equal parts, from 90 to 46 inclusive. An index laid any where across these scales might, therefore, be presumed to cut at least one of them at some of the divisions, and hence the intercepted space would be expressed by a corresponding fraction.

But the method of subdivision which was afterwards introduced by Peter Vernier, a gentleman of Franche Comté, and published by him in a small tract at Brussels in 1631, being itself an improvement on the method used in the construction of Tycho Brahe's astronomical instruments, is much simpler and far more ingenious. It is founded on the difference of two approximating scales, one of which is moveable. Thus, if a space equal to $n-1$ part on the limb of the instrument be divided into n parts, these evidently will each of them be smaller than the former, by the nth part of a division. Wherefore, on shifting forward this attached scale, the quantity of aberration will diminish at each successive division, till a new coincidence obtains, and then the number of those divisions on that scale will mark the fractional value of the displacement.

Thus in the annexed figure, nine divisions of the primary scale, forming ten equal parts on the attached or sliding scale, the moveable zero stands beyond the first interval

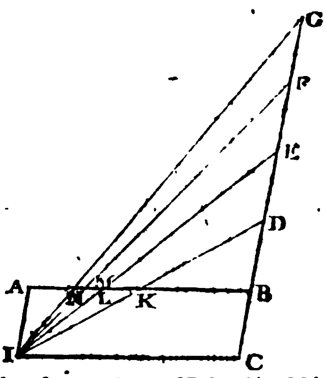


between the third and fourth division. To find this minute difference, observe where the opposite sections of the scales come to coincide, which occurs under the fourth division of the sliding scale, and therefore indicates the quantity 1.34.

3. Proposition fifth. This problem could be otherwise solved. Though B draw the inclined straight line CBG extended both ways, in this take any point C, and make BD, BE,

EF, FG. &c. each equal to BC, complete the parallelogram ABCI, and join ID, IE, IF, IG, &c. cutting AB in the point K, L, M, N, &c.; then is the segment AK the half of AB, AL the third, AM the fourth, and AN the fifth part of the same given line.

For the segments of the straight line AB must be proportional to the segments of the parallels AI and BG, intercepted by the diverging lines ID, IE, IF, IG, &c. Thus, AK : KB : : AI : BD; but, by construction, BC or AI=BD, whence (V. 4.) AK=KB, and therefore AK is the half of AB. Again, AL : LB : : AI : BE; and since BE=2AI, it follows that LB=2AL, or AL is the third part of AB. In the same manner, AM : MD : : AI : BF; but BF=3AI, whence MB=3AM, or AM is the fourth part of AB.



And, by a like process, it may be shown that AN is the fifth part of AB.

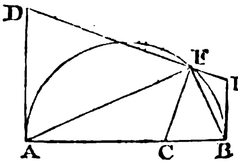
4. Proposition seventeenth. The solution of this important problem now inserted in the text, was suggested to me by Mr Thomas Carlyle, an ingenious young mathematician, formerly my pupil. But I here subjoin likewise the original construction given by Pappus, which, though rather more complex, has yet some peculiar advantages.

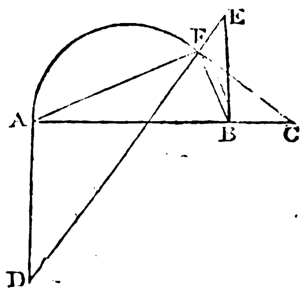
Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut, so that the rectangle under its segments shall be equivalent to a given rectangle.

On AB describe the semicircle AFB, at A and B apply tangents AD and BE equal to the sides of the given rectangle, and both in the same or in opposite directions, according as the line is to be cut internally or externally; join DE, and from the point F where it meets the circumference, draw the

perpendicular FC; this will divide the given line AB into AC and BC, the segments required.

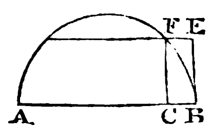
For the right angle DFC is equal (III. 19.) to the angle AFB contained in the semicircle, and consequently their difference from AFC or the angles DFA and CFB are equal. For the same reason, the angle AFB being likewise equal to CFE, add or take away CFB, and the angle BFE will be equal to AFC. But AD being a tangent, and AF a straight line inflected to the circumference, the exterior angle DAF is equal (III. 21.) to the angle in the alternate segment AF or the angle CPF (III. 17. cor. 2.). Again, BE being a tangent and BF an inflected line, the exterior angle EBF is equal to BAF. Wherefore the triangles DAF and AFC are similar to BFC and BFE; and hence AD : AF : : CB : BF, and AF : AC : : BF : BE; consequently (V. 16.) AD : AC : : CB : BE, and (V. 6.) AD.BE=AC.CB.



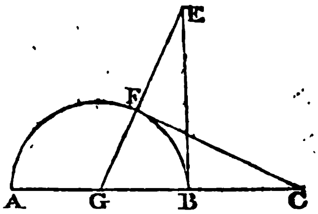


Cor. If the sides of the given rectangle be equal, the construction of the problem will become materially simplified.

First, in the case of internal section: The tangents AD, BE being equal, it is evident that DE must be parallel to AB and the perpendicular FC parallel to EB. Whence, employing this construction, or erecting the perpendicular BE equal to the sides of the given square, and drawing the parallel EF to meet the circumference F, from which is let fall on AB the perpendicular FC, the rectangle under the segments AC and CB is equivalent to the square of BE; which also follows from Prop. 26. cor. 1. Book III.



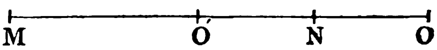
Next, in the case of external section: The opposite tangents AD, BE being equal, the triangles AGD and BGE are evidently equal, and therefore DE passes through the centre. Hence the triangles BGE and FGC are also equal, and GC equal to GE. The modified construction is therefore to erect the perpendicular BE equal to the side of the given square, join GE, and where this cuts the circumference apply the tangent FC to meet AB produced: Then AC and CB are the required external segments of the given line AB. For it is evident that the rectangle AC, CB will be equal to the square of BE: which is also deduced from Prop. 26. cor. 2. Book III., since CF is now a tangent and $AC.CB=CF^2$ or BE^2.



If AB be equal to BE, the construction will exactly correspond with what was before given.

In applying this problem to the construction of quadratic equations, it is necessary previously to ascertain the precise import of the ordinary signs used in Algebra, when extended to geometrical quantities. The signs + and — intimate, in general, nothing more than that the number, or the magnitude expressed by number, to which they are respectively prefixed, is to be added to, or taken away from, any other number, with which it comes to be combined. It would be more correct language, therefore, to call the quantities carrying such signs *additive* and *subtractive*, implying merely a casual and mutable relation; instead of the usual appellations of *positive* and *negative*, which seem to bestow a distinct and absolute character, and have hence led incautious reasoners into mystery and paradox. A similar degree of reserve is indispensable in Geometry. Following the European mode of writing from left to right, we might fancy it almost natural to draw a line in the same direction: When we want to extend a line, we apply an *additional* line to the right; but when we seek to con-

tract it, we retrace a *deficient* line to the left. Thus, if NO be annexed to the right of MN, there results



MO; or if NO′ be taken to the left of the extremity N, there will remain MO′. The position of NO or NO′, to the right or left, will, therefore, in reference to a combination with any line MN, have the same effect as the signs of addition or subtraction produce in Algebra. Following out the analogy, while lines drawn upwards may correspond to additive quantities, lines drawn downwards must express subtractive quantities.

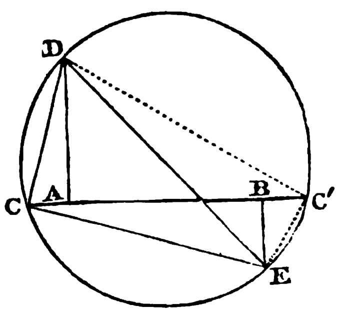
Quadratic equations are reducible to these four forms:

$$1.\ x^2 + ax = + bc$$
$$2.\ x^2 - ax = + bc$$
$$3.\ x^2 + ax = - bc$$
$$4.\ x^2 - ax = - bc.$$

The two first may be constructed from the second case of Proposition seventeenth; and the two last will receive their construction from the first case of that problem. We shall resume the equations in their order:

1. $x^2+ax=+bc$, then $x=-\frac{a}{2}\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a^2}{4}+bc\right)}$, there being two roots, the greater subtractive and the less additive.

Employing the construction of the second case of the problem, let $AB = a$, $AD=b$, and $BE = -c$, since it stretches below AB; if BC represent $-x$, then CA, in the reverse position, will be denoted by $-a-x$. Wherefore $BC \times CA = (-a-x)\,x = -ax-x^2$, and consequently $AD.BE = -bc = -ax-x^2$, or, by inversion, $x^2 + ax = + bc$. The roots are, consequently, the shorter segment BC′ which is additive, and the longer segment BC which is subtractive.



2. $x^2-ax=+bc$, then $x=+\frac{a}{2}\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a^2}{4}+bc\right)}$; there being now likewise two roots, but the greater additive, and the less subtractive.

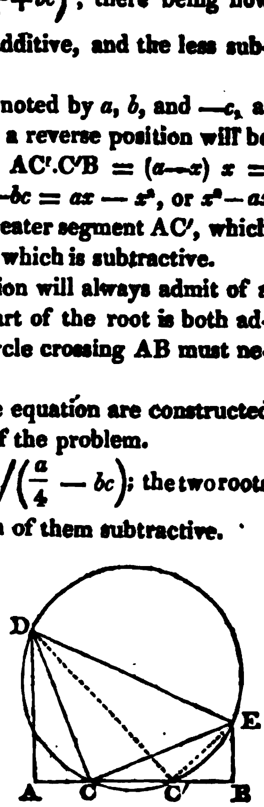
Here AB, AD and BE being denoted by a, b, and $-c$, as before; if AC′ represent x, C′B in a reverse position will be expressed by $a-x$. Consequently AC′.C′B $=(a-x)\,x=ax-x^2$, and therefore AD.BE $=-bc=ax-x^2$, or $x^2-ax=+bc$. The roots are hence the greater segment AC′, which is additive, and the less segment AC which is subtractive.

In this case, the quadratic equation will always admit of a double solution, since the radical part of the root is both additive and subtractive, while the circle crossing AB must necessarily cut it in two parts.

The third and fourth forms of the equation are constructed by the application of the first case of the problem.

3. $x^2+ax=-bc$, then $x=-\frac{a}{2}\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{4}-bc\right)}$; the two roots having the same character, and both of them subtractive.

Let AB $=a$, AD $=b$, and BE $=c$; if BC denote $-x$, AC or AB—BC, will be expressed by $a+x$. Whence AC.BC $=(a+x)\cdot x=-ax-x^2$, and AD.BE $=bc=-ax-x^2$. By transposition, therefore, $x^2+ax=-bc$. The values x are consequently BC and BC′, both of them subtractive.



4. $x^2-ax=-bc$, then $x=+\frac{a}{2}\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{4}-bc\right)}$; both roots having likewise the same character, but additive.

Let AB, AD, and BE be expressed as before by a, b and c; if AC represent x, CB will be denoted by $a-x$. Wherefore, AC.CB$=(a-x)x=ax-x^2$, and AD.BE$=bc=ax-x^2$. Consequently by transposition $x^2-ax=-bc$. The roots of this equation are, therefore, expressed by AC and AC′, both of them additive.

When the rectangle under the perpendicular AD and BE becomes equivalent to the square of half of AB, the circle touches AB, and the two points C and C′ merge in a single point. At this limit, too, the radical part $\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a^2}{4}-bc\right)}$ of the value of x vanishes, and there results a single root, which is additive or subtractive according to the sign of the second term of the quadratic equation. If it were sought that the rectangle under AD, BE, or under the segments AC, CB, should exceed the square of the half of AB, the circle would not meet this straight line, while the radical would evidently become impossible, and thus betray the same incongruity of hypothesis.

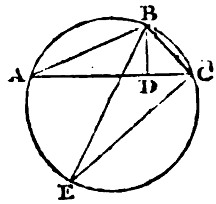
It may be observed, that the algebraical solution of these quadratic equations flows from the geometrical construction. For, suppose AB were bisected in O; it is evident that $AD.BE=AC.CB=AO^2,-OC^2$, or OC^2-AO^2, or $OC^2=AO^2-AD.BE$, or $AD.BE+AO^2$, according as the intersection takes place within or without AB. Wherefore OC always represents the radical part $\pm\sqrt{\left(\frac{a^2}{4}-bc\right)}$; of the expression for the values of x, which are formed by its combination with OA.

If the construction of Pappus be used, while the perpendiculars AD, BE, and the transverse line DE remain the same as before, the intersection of this with a circle described on AB determines the position of a perpendicular to it, dividing the diameter internally or externally into the required segments.

5. Proposition eighteenth. To this proposition might be added a corollary: *That four times the area of a triangle is to the rectangle under any two sides, as the base to the radius of the circumscribing circle.*

For the area of the triangle ABC is (Prop. 5. II.) equivalent to half the rectangle contained by the base AC and the perpendicular BD, and consequently four times this area is equi-

valent to twice the rectangle AC, BD. But (VI. 18.) the rectangle under the sides AB and BC is equivalent to the rectangle under the perpendicular BD and BE, the diameter of the circumscribing circle, or to twice the rectangle under BD and the radius of that circle. Whence four times the area of the triangle is to the rectangle under the sides AB and BC,



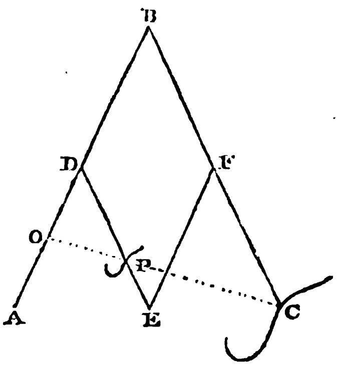
as twice the rectangle under BD and AC to twice the rectangle under BD and the radius of the circumscribing circle, or as the base AC to that radius.

Let a, b and c denote the three sides of a triangle, and S half their sum or the semiperimeter; then, combining Prop. 29. Book VI. with this corollary, the radius of the circumscribing circle will be expressed by $\frac{abc}{4\sqrt{(S.S-a.S-b.S-c)}}$. Thus, if the sides of the triangle be 13, 14, 15, the radius of the circumscribing circle $=\frac{13.\ 14.\ 15.}{4\sqrt{(21.8.7.6)}}=\frac{2730}{336}=8\frac{1}{8}$.

6. Proposition nineteenth. This well-known proposition is now rendered more general, by its extension to the case of the exterior angle of the triangle. The two cases combined afford an easy demonstration of the corollary to Proposition 7. Book VI.; for the straight lines bisecting the vertical and its adjacent angle form a right-angled triangle, of which the hypotenuse is the distance on the base between the points of internal and external section.

7. Proposition twenty-third. The latter part of the scholium was added to this proposition, with a view to explain the principle of the construction of the *pantagraph*, a very useful instrument contrived for copying, reducing, or even enlarging plans. It consists of a jointed rhombus DBFE, framed of wood or brass, and having the two sides BD and BF extended to double their length; the side DE and the branch DA are marked from D with successive divisions, DO being

made to BO always in the ratio of DP to BC; small sliding boxes for holding a pencil or tracing point are brought to the corresponding graduations, and secured in their positions by screws; the point O is made the centre of motion, and rests on a fulcrum or support of lead; and the tracer is generally fixed at C, while the crayon or drawing point is lodged at P. From the property of diverging lines intersecting parallels, the three points O, P and C must evidently range in the same straight line, and which is divided at P in the determinate ratio. While the point C, therefore, is carried along the boundaries of any figure, the intermediate point P will, by the scholium, trace out a similar figure, reduced in the proportion of OC to OP or of OB to OD, and which, in the present instance, is that of three to one.

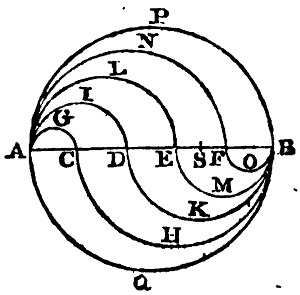


But the point P may be placed in the fulcrum, the tracer inserted at O, and the crayon held at C; in which case, C would delineate a figure which is enlarged in the ratio of OP to PC or of OD to DB. If the points O and P were now brought to coincide with A and E, the distances AE and EC being equal, the original figure would be transferred into a copy exactly of the same dimensions.

In reducing small figures, however, artists commonly prefer another method, which is partly mechanical. The original is divided into a number of small squares, by means of equidistant and intersecting parallels. Other reduced squares are drawn for the copy, which is then filled up, by observing the same relative position and form of the boundaries.—One material advantage results from this practice; for if oblongs be used in the copy instead of squares, the original figure will be more reduced in one dimension than another, which is of-

ten very convenient where height and distance are represented on different scales.

8. Proposition twenty-eight. The curious properties of the *crescents*, or *lunulæ*, contained in the first corollary, were discovered by Hippocrates of Chios, in his attempts to square the circle. But there is a beautiful extension of them which deserves notice. It is a mode of dividing a given circle into equal portions, and contained within equal circular boundaries. For example, let it be required to cut the circle APBQ into five equal spaces. Divide the diameter AB into five equal parts at the points C, D, E and F; on AC, AD, AE, and AF describe the semicircles AGC, AID, ALE, and ANF, and on BC, BD, BE, and BF, towards the opposite side, describe the semicircles BHC, BKD, BME, and BOF; the circle APBQ will be divided into five equal portions, by the equal compound semicircumferences AGCHB, AIDKB, ALEMB, and ANFOB.

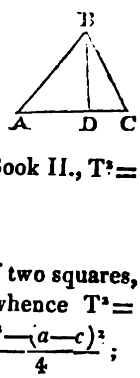


For the diameter AB is to the diameter AD, as the circumference of AB to the circumference of AD, or (V. 3.), as the semicircumference APB to the semicircumference AID; and AB is to BD, as the semicircumference APB to the semicircumference BKD. Wherefore (V. 20.) AB is to AD and BD together as the semicircumference APB to the compound boundary AIDKB; and consequently these interior boundaries AGCHB, AIDKB, ALEMB, and ANFOB, are all equal to the semicircumference of the original circle.

Again, the circle on AB is to the circles on AE and AF, as the square of AB to the squares of AE and AF; and consequently (V. 20.) the circle on AB is to the difference between the circles on AE and AF, as the square of AB to the difference between the squares of AE and AF, that is (II. 17.), the rectangle under the sum and difference of AE and AF, or

twice the rectangle under EF and AS, the distance of A from the middle point of EF. Whence the circle APBQ is to the difference of the semicircles ALE and ANF, or the space ALEFN, as the square of AB to the rectangle under AS and EF; and, for the same reason, the circle APBQ is to the space FOBME, as the square of AB is to the rectangle under BS and EF; consequently (V. 20.) the circle APBQ is to the compound space ALEMBOFN, as the square of AB to the rectangles under AS and EF and BS and EF, or the rectangle under AB and EF; but the square of AB is to the rectangle under AB and EF, (V. 25. cor. 2.) as AB to EF, which is the fifth part of AB; wherefore (V. 5.) any of the intermediate spaces, such as ALEMBOFN, is the fifth part of the whole circle.

9. Proposition twenty-ninth. This elegant theorem admits of an algebraical investigation. Put $AC=a$, $AB=b$, $BC=c$, and let s denote the semiperimeter, and T the area of the triangle; then, by Prop. 23. Book II., $2AC.CD=a^2+c^2-b^2$, consequently $CD=\frac{a^2+c^2-b^2}{2a}$, and $BD^2=BC^2-CD^2=$



$c^2-\left(\frac{a^2+c^2-b^2}{2a}\right)^2$, and, therefore, by Prop. 5. Book II., $T^2=\frac{AC^2.BD^2}{4}=\frac{4a^2c^2-(a^2+c^2-b^2)^2}{16}$.

But this expression, consisting of the difference of two squares, may be decomposed, by Prop. 17. Book II.; whence $T^2=\frac{2ac+a^2+c^2-b^2}{4}.\frac{2ac-a^2-c^2+b^2}{4}=\frac{(a+c)^2-b^2}{4}.\frac{b^2-(a-c)^2}{4}$; and, decomposing these factors again,

$$T^2=\frac{a+b+c}{2}.\frac{a-b+c}{2}.\frac{a+b-c}{2}.\frac{-a+b+c}{2}$$

Now, $\frac{a+b+c}{2}=s$, $\frac{a-b+c}{2}=s-b$, $\frac{a+b-c}{2}=s-c$, and $\frac{-a+b+c}{2}=s-a$; wherefore we obtain, by substitution,

$$T=\sqrt{(s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c))}.$$

If the triangle ABC were supposed to be isosceles, the perpendicular BD would divide it into two right-angled triangles. But c being now equal to b, the formula for the square of the area becomes $\frac{2b+a}{2}\cdot\frac{2b-a}{2}\cdot\frac{a^2}{4}=\frac{4b^2-a^2}{4}\cdot\frac{a^2}{4}=\mathrm{BD}^2\cdot\frac{a^2}{4}$; wherefore $\mathrm{BD}^2=b^2-\frac{a^2}{4}=\mathrm{AB}^2-\mathrm{AD}^2$, or $\mathrm{AB}^2=\mathrm{AD}^2+\mathrm{BD}^2$. Whence another independent demonstration of the celebrated property of right-angled triangles.

Suppose the sides of the general triangle to be 13, 14, and 15; then the area is $=\sqrt{(21.8.7.6)}-\sqrt{7056}=84$. If the sides were 21, 17 and 10, the area would be the same, for $\sqrt{(24.3.7.14)}=\sqrt{7056}=84$.

This most useful proposition in practical geometry was known to the Greeks of Alexandria, and by them communicated to the Arabians, but seems to have been re-invented in Europe about the latter part of the fifteenth century.

When large numbers are concerned, the calculation is much expedited by logarithms; but in some cases, the result is more easily obtained from the expression $\frac{(a+c)^2-b^2}{4}\cdot\frac{b^2-(a-c)^2}{4}$, by help of a table of *quarter-squares*, such as I have given at the end of the last edition of the *Philosophy of Arithmetic.*—Thus, let the sides of the triangle be 41, 52, and 15; then $a+c=56$, and $a-c=26$, the differences between the quarter-squares of 56 and 52, and of 52 and 26, are 108 and 507, of which the sum and difference are 615 and 399; and corresponding numbers in the table being subtracted, give 54756, which again corresponds to 468, and the half of this or 234 is the area required.

Sides.	Sides & Diff.	Q. Sq.	Diff.	Sum & Diff.	Q. Sq.
41	56	74	108	615	94556
52	52	676		399	39800
15	26	169	507	468	54756

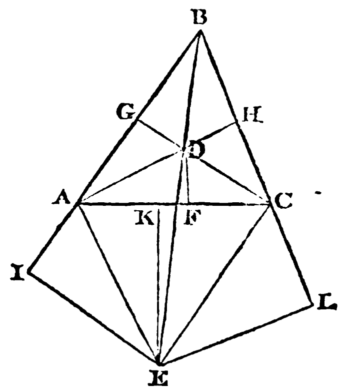
As another example, suppose the sides of the triangle to be 50, 41 and 39:

Sides.	Sides & Diff.	Q. Sq.	Diff.	Sums & Diff.	Q. Sq.
50	89	1980	1560	1950	950625
41	41	420		1170	342225
39	11	30	390	1560	608400

But 608400 corresponds to 1560, the half of which is 780, the area sought.

Another corollary might be subjoined to this proposition: *As the semiperimeter of a triangle is to its excess above the base, so is the rectangle under its excesses above the two sides to the square of the radius of the inscribed circle.*

For BI : BG : : EI : DG, and consequently (V. 25. cor. 2.) BI : BG : : EI.DG : DG^2; but it was proved that EI.DG is equivalent to AG.AI, and hence BI : BG : : AG.AI : DG^2. Now BI has been shown to be the semiperimeter, and BG, AG and AI its excesses above the base and the other two sides of the triangle, of which DG is the radius, of the inscribed circle.



Hence let the sides of the triangle be denoted by a, b and c, and the semiperimeter by 8; the square of the radius of the inscribed circle will then be expressed by $\frac{S-a . S-b . S-c.}{S}$

Suppose, for example, the sides of the triangle were 13, 14 and 15, the radius of the inscribed circle would be the square root of $\frac{8. 7. 6}{21}$, or of 16, that is 4.

Employing the same notation, it is not difficult to perceive that the continued product of all the sides of a triangle must be equivalent to the product of twice their sum into the radii of the inscribed and circumscribing circles. Thus, 13.14.15=2730=84.4.8⅛.

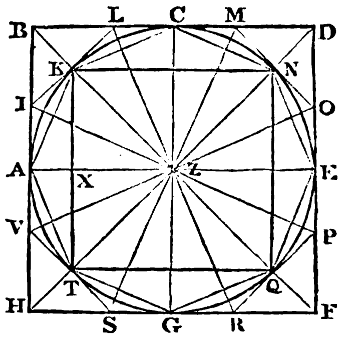
Recurring to the last figure, it is evident that BG : BI : : DG : EI : : DG.EI : EI²; or, since DG.EI = AG.AI, BG : BI : : AG.AI : EI²; that is, *As the excess of the perimeter above the base is to the semiperimeter itself, so is the rectangle under its excesses above the other two sides of the triangle to the square of the radius of the circle of external contact below the base.* Thus, in the triangle taken for illustration, 6 : 21 : : 8.7 : 196; and consequently the radius of the circle under the base is 14. Again, 7 : 21 : : 8.6 : 144, and the radius of the circle touching externally the side 14 is therefore 12. And, in the same manner, 8 : 21 : : 7.6 : 110½; which gives 10½ for the radius of the circle applied beyond the shortest side 13.

10. Proposition thirtieth. A similar and very important problem, which formerly occupied a place in the text, must not be omitted. It likewise furnishes an ingenious and concise approximation to the quadrature of the circle, first published at Padua in the year 1668, by James Gregory, who for a very short time adorned the mathematical chair of the University of Edinburgh; and seems the more deserving of attention, as it probably led that original author to the investigation of the Method of Series.

Given the area of an inscribed, and that of a circumscribed, regular polygon; to find the areas of inscribed and circumscribed regular polygons, having double the number of sides.

Let TKNQ and HBDF be given similar inscribed and circumscribed rectilineal figures; it is required thence to determine the surfaces of the corresponding inscribed and circumscribed polygons AKCNEQGT and VILMOPRS, which have twice the number of sides.

From the centre of the circle, draw radiating lines to all the angular points. It is evident that the triangles ZXK and ZAB are like portions of the given inscribed and circumscribed figures TKNQ and HBDF; and that the triangle ZAK, and the quadrilateral figure ZAIK are also like portions of the derivative polygons AKCNEQGT and VILMOPRS. And since XK is parallel to AB, ZX : ZA : : ZK : ZB (VI. 2.); but ZX is to ZA as the triangle ZXK is to the triangle ZAK (V. 25. cor 2.), and, for the same reason, ZK is to ZB as the triangle ZAK is to the triangle ZAB; whence ZXK : ZAK : : ZAK : ZAB, and consequently the derivative inscribed polygon AKCNEQGT is a mean proportional between the inscribed and circumscribed figures TKNQ and HBDF.



Again, because ZI bisects the angle AZB, ZA is to ZB, or ZX is to ZX, as AI to IB (VI. 10.), and consequently (V. 25. cor. 2.) the triangle XZK is to the triangle AZK as the triangle AZI to the triangle IZB. Hence the inscribed figure TKNQ is to its derivative inscribed figure AKCNEQGT as the triangle AZI to the triangle IZB; wherefore (V. 11. and 13.) TKNQ and AKCNEQGT together are to twice TKNQ, as the triangles AZI and IZB, or AZB, to twice the triangle AZI, or the space AIKZ,—that is, as HBDF to VILMOPRS. And thus the two inscribed polygons are to twice the simple inscribed polygon, as the surface of the circumscribing polygon to the surface of the derivative circumscribing polygon with double the number of sides.

Cor. Hence the area of a circle is equivalent to the rectangle under its radius and a straight line equal to half its circumference. For the surface of any regular circumscribing polygon, such as VILMOPRS, being composed of a number of triangles AZI, which have all the same altitude ZA, is equivalent (II. 6.) to the rectangle under ZA and half the sum of their bases, or the semiperimeter of the polygon. But the

circle itself, as it forms the ultimate limit of the polygon, must have its area, therefore, equivalent to the rectangle under the radius ZA, and the semicircumference ACE.

Scholium. This solution, it was observed, affords one of the best elementary methods of approximating to the numerical expression for the area of a circle. Supposing the radius of a circle to be denoted by unit; the surface of the circumscribing square will be expressed by 4, and consequently (IV. 15. cor.) that of its inscribed square by 2. Wherefore the surface of the inscribed octagon is $=\sqrt{2\times 4}=2.8284271247$; and the surface of the circumscribing octagon is found by the analogy, $2+2.8284271247 : 2\times 2 :: 4 : 3.3137084990$. Again, $\sqrt{(2.8284271247 \times 3.3137084990)}=3.0614674589$, which expresses the area of the inscribed polygon of 16 sides; and by a farther process $2.8284271247+3.0614674589 : 2\times 2.8284271247$, or $5.8898945836 : 5.6568542494 :: 3.313708499 : 3.1825979781$, which denotes the area of the circumscribing polygon of 16 sides. Pursuing this mode of calculation, by alternately extracting a square root and finding a fourth proportional, the following Table will be formed, in which the numbers expressing the surfaces of the inscribed and circumscribed polygons continually approach to each other, and consequently to the measure of their intermediate circle.

Number of Sides.	Area of the inscribed Polygon.	Area of the circumscribing Polygon.
4	2.0000000000	4.0000000000
8	2.8284271247	3.3137084990
16	3.0614674589	3.1825979781
32	3.1214451523	3.1517249074
64	3.1365484905	3.1441184852
128	3.1403311570	3.1422236917
256	3.1412772509	3.1417503692
512	3.1415138011	3.1416321807
1024	3.1415729037	3.1416025026
2048	3.1415877253	3.1415951177
4096	3.1415914215	3.1415932696
8192	3.1415923456	3.1415928076
16384	3.1415925766	3.1415926921
32768	3.1415926344	3.1415926632
65536	3.1415926488	3.1415926560
131072	3.1415926524	3.1415926542
262144	3.1415926533	3.1415926537
524288	3.1415926535	3.1415926536

The computation of this table might be greatly abridged, by attending to the successive formation of the numbers. Let a and b denote the area of an inscribed and circumscribing polygon of the same number of sides, and a' and b' the areas of corresponding polygons having double the number of sides. Since $a' = \sqrt{ab}$, when a and b approach to equality, it is obvious that $a' = \frac{a+b}{2}$ nearly, or $a'-a = \frac{b-a}{2}$: Wherefore, after the sides of the polygon are multiplied, the numbers of the first column will be formed, by constantly adding *half* their difference from those of the second column. Again, because $b' = \frac{2ab}{a'+a}$, by substitution $b' = \frac{4ab}{3a+b}$, and hence $b-b' = \frac{b^2-ab}{3a+b} = (b-a)\frac{b}{3a+b}$; but, since a and b come to differ little, the fraction $\frac{b}{3a+b}$ may be reckoned equal to $\frac{1}{4}$, or $b-b' = \frac{b-a}{4}$ very nearly. Consequently the higher numbers in the second column may be filled up, by subtracting *one-fourth* of the common difference. It follows likewise, from combining this result with what has been shown before, that a number in the second column, diminished by the *third* part of the common difference, must give very nearly the final result. Thus, the areas of the inscribed and circumscribing polygon of 2048 sides, being 3.1415877253 and 3.1415951177, their difference is 73924, and the third of this, or 24641, taken away from the greater, leaves 3.1415926536, for the ultimate value, or the area of the circle itself.

Of the two modes of approximating to the mensuration of the circle, the one contained in the text, though not so direct, is on the whole simpler than the other. In the course of my geometrical lectures, I generally mentioned, that the first proposition of the fourth book, by enabling us to discover a series of regular polygons with the same sides continually doubled, admitted of an easy application. But not having pursued the calculation to any length, I neglected the obvious advantage which results from reducing the perimeter at each step to the same extent, till I was led to reconsider the subject, in consequence of meeting with the small work of Schwab, before quoted. It somehow had escaped my notice, that M. Legendre, in the additions to his Geometry, has cursorily treated the subject in the same way.

The numbers contained in the last table were copied and interpolated from the tract of James Gregory, entitled, *Vera Circuli et Hyperbolæ Quadratura*, as reprinted in the *Opera Varia* of Huygens. For the calculation of the table contained in the text, and of other two tables which will be annexed to this note, accompanied by several acute remarks concerning the formation of the successive numbers, I am indebted to the very obliging assiduity of a young friend, Mr G. A. Walker Arnott, whose solid talents and unwearied application promise the happiest fruits.

Let the same mode of computation be applied to the successive polygons derived from the hexagon. The radius of the circle being unit, the perpendicular from the centre to the base of each component triangle of the inscribed hexagon will be $= \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$, and consequently the area of the figure $= \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3} =$ 2.5980762114. Again, each side of the circumscribing hexagon is $= \sqrt{\frac{4}{3}} = 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$, and therefore its area, or that of the six contained triangles, is $= 6\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} = 2\sqrt{3} = \sqrt{12} =$ 3.4641016151, or one-third more than the former. Hence the following table is constructed.

Number of Sides.	Area of the Inscribed Polygon.	Area of the Circumscribing Polygon.
6	2.5980762114	3.4641016151
12	3.0000000000	3.2153903092
24	3.1058285412	3.1596599421
48	3.1326286134	3.1460862150
96	3.1393502030	3.1427145996
192	3.1410319509	3.1418730499
384	3.1414524723	3.1416627470
768	3.1415576079	3.1416101766
1536	3.1415838921	3.1415970343
3072	3.1415904632	3.1415937487
6144	3.1415921060	3.1415929274
12288	3.1415925167	3.1415927220
24576	3.1415926194	3.1415926707
49152	3.1415926450	3.1415926579
98304	3.1415926514	3.1415926547
196608	3.1415926531	3.1415926539
393216	3.1415926535	3.1415926537
786432	3.1415926536	3.1415926536

If the method employed in the text for discovering the radius of the circle, which has twice the number of sides under the same extent of perimeter, be applied to the hexagon or its elementary equilateral triangle, the numbers will stand as below.

Number of Sides.	Radius of Inscribed Circle.	Radius of Circumscribing Circle.
6	.8660254038	1.0000000000
12	.9330127019	.9659258263
24	.9494692641	.9576621969
48	.9535657305	.9556117687
96	.9545887496	.9551001222
192	.9548444359	.9549722705
384	.9549083532	.9549403113
768	.9549243322	.9549323217
1536	.9549283270	.9549303243
3072	.9549293257	.9549298250
6144	.9549295753	.9549297002
12288	.9549296378	.9549296690
24576	.9549296534	.9549296612
49152	.9549296573	.9549296592
98304	.9549296582	.9549296587
196608	.9549296585	.9549296586
393216	.9549296586	.9549296586

Wherefore, .95492965856 : 1 : : 3 : 3.1415926536; and hence 3.1415926536 is the nearest expression, consisting of ten decimal places, for the area of the circle whose radius is 1. But the semicircumference in this case denoting also the surface, the same number must represent the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 1. Consequently, if D denote the diameter of any circle, the circumference will be expressed approximately, by $3.1415926536 \times D$; whence the area will be $\frac{1}{4}D^2 \times 3.1415926536$, or $D^2 \times .7853981634$.

By help of the note to Prop. 27. Book V. lower numbers may be found, approximating to the same results. For in this case

$m=3$, $n=7$, $p=16$, and $q=11$: whence, remounting from these conditional equalities, the ratio of the diameter to the circumference of a circle is denoted progressively, by 1 : 3—by 7 : 22—by 113 : 355—and by 1250 : 3927. The ratio of 1 to 3 is the rudest approximation, being the same as that of the diameter of the circle to the perimeter of its inscribed hexagon; the ratio of 7 to 22 is what was discovered by Archimedes; the ratio of 113 to 355, in which the three first odd numbers appear in pairs, was first proposed by Adrian Metius of Alkmaer, Professor of Mathematics and Medicine at Franeker, who died in 1636; and the ratio of 1250 to 3927, the same as 1 to 3.1416, which was known to the Arabians, and is now generally preferred in practice. Hence also the circle is to its circumscribing square nearly—as 11 to 14, or still more nearly—as 355 to 452, or finally as .7854 to 1.

To this Book may be added the following Propositions.

PROP. I. THEOR.

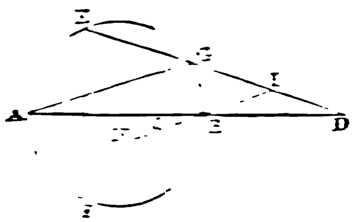
If from any point in the circumference of a circle, straight lines be drawn to the extremities of a chord, and meeting the perpendicular diameter, they will divide that diameter, internally and externally, in the same ratio.

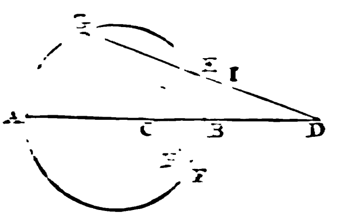
Let the chord EF be perpendicular to the diameter AB of a circle, and from its extremities F and E straight lines FG and EG be inflected to a point G in the circumference, and cutting the diameter internally and externally in C and D; then will AC : CB : : AD : DB.

For join AG and BG, and draw HBI parallel to AG.

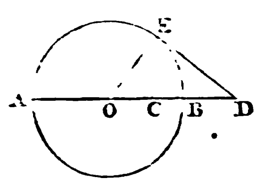
Because AEGB is a semicircle, the angle AGB is a right angle (III. 19.); wherefore AG and HI being parallel, the alternate angle GBI is right (I. 22.), and likewise its adjacent angle GBH. But the diameter AB, being perpendicular to the

[illegible] must [illegible] and [illegible] bisect the arc [illegible], and therefore the angle [illegible] is equal to [illegible] or [illegible] and since [illegible] is parallel to [illegible] the angle [illegible] is equal to the angle [illegible] or its supplement [illegible], and for the same reason, the angle [illegible] is equal to the alternate angle GHB. Whence the angle GIB is equal to GHB, but the angles GBI and GBH being both right angles, are equal, and the side GB is common to the two triangles BGI and BHG, which are, therefore, equal (I. 26), and consequently BH is equal to BI, and AG : BH : : AG : BI. Now, because the parallels AG and BH are intercepted by the diverging lines AB and GH, AG : BH : : AC : CB (VI. 2.); and since the parallels AG and BI are intercepted by the diverging lines GD and AD, AG : BI : : AD : DB. Wherefore, by identity of ratios, AC : CB : : AD : DB, that is, the straight line AB is cut in the same ratio, internally and externally, or the whole line AD is divided harmonically in the points C and B.





Cor. 1. As the points E and G come nearer each other, it is obvious that the straight line EGD will approach continually to the position of the tangent, which is its ultimate limit. Hence the tangent and the perpendicular, from the point of contact or mutual coincidence, cut the diameter proportionally, or AC : CB : : AD : DB. It is, therefore, evident (VI. 7.) that, O being the centre, OC : OB : : OB : OD.



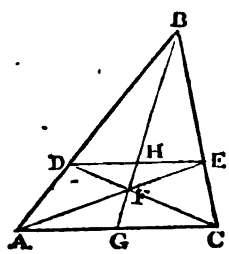
Cor. 2. Since OC : OB : : OB : OD, it follows (V. 19. cor. 2.) that OC : OD : : $OB^2 - OC^2$ or AC.CB : $OD^2 - OB^2$ or AD.DB; whence, by division, CD : OD : : AD.DB—AC.CB, or (VI. 7. cor.) CD^2 : AD.DB.

PROP. II. THEOR.

If two straight lines be inflected from the extremities of the base of a triangle to cut the opposite sides proportionally, another straight line, drawn from the vertex through their point of concourse, will bisect the base.

In the triangle ABC, let AE and CD, drawn from the extremities of the base to cut the opposite sides proportionally, intersect each other in F, join BF, which produce if necessary to meet the base in the point G; AG will be equal to GC.

For join DE. And because the sides AB and BC are cut proportionally, DE is parallel to AC (VI. 1. cor.), whence BD : BA : : BH : BG (VI. 1.); but BD : BA : : DE : AC (VI. 2.), and therefore BH : BG : : DE : AC. Again, the parallels DE and AC being cut by the diverging lines AE and CD, DE : AC : : DF : FC (VI. 2.) and DF : FC : : FH : FG (VI. 1.); wherefore BH : BG : : FH : FG, or BF is cut internally and externally in the same ratio. But DH being parallel to AG, BH : BG : : DH : AG; and since DH is also parallel to GC, HF : FG : : DH : GC; whence DH : AG : : DH : GC, and consequently AG is equal to GC.



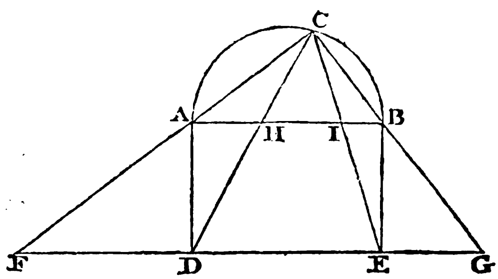
PROP. III. THEOR.

If a semicircle be described on the side of a rectangle, and through its extremities two straight lines be drawn from any point

in the circumference to meet the opposite side produced both ways; the altitude of the rectangle will be a mean proportional between the segments thus intercepted.

Let ABED be a rectangle, which has a semicircle ACB described on the side AB and the straight lines CA and CB drawn from a point C in the circumference to meet the extension of the opposite side DE; the altitude AD of the rectangle will be a mean proportional between the exterior segments FD and EG.

For, the angle ADF, being evidently a right angle, is equal to the angle ACB, which stands in a semicircle (III. 19.) and



the angle DFA is equal to the exterior angle BAC (I. 22.); wherefore (VI. 11.) the triangle FAD is similar to ABC. In the same manner, it is proved that the triangle BGE is similar to ABC; whence the triangles DAF and BGE are similar to each other, and consequently (VI. 11.) FD : AD : : BE or AD : EG.

If the straight lines CD and CE be drawn, they will (VI. 2.) divide the diameter AB into segments AH, HI, and IB, which are respectively proportional to the segments FD, DE, and EG of the extended side DE. Consequently, when ABED is a square, and therefore DE a mean proportional between FD and EG, it must follow that HI is likewise a mean proportional between AH and IB.

If the rectangle ABED have its altitude AD equal to the side of a square inscribed within the circle, the square of the

diameter AB is equivalent to the squares of the two segments AI and BH. For FD : AD : : AD : EG, whence (V. 6.) $FD.EG = AD^2$, or $2FD.EG = 2AD^2$; but (IV. 15. cor.) $2AD^2 = AB^2$ or DE^2, and consequently $2FD.EG = DE^2$; wherefore (VI. 2.) $2AH.IB = HI^2$, and hence, by the first additional proposition to Book II., the segments AI, BH are the sides of a right-angled triangle, of which AB is the hypotenuse, or $AB^2 = AI^2 + BH^2$.

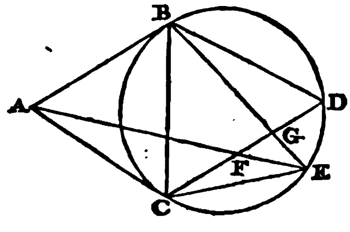
This is one of the elegant theorems of Fermat.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

A chord of a circle is divided in continued proportion, by straight lines inflected to any point in the opposite circumference from the extremities of a parallel tangent, which is limited by another tangent applied at the origin of the chord.

Let AB, AC be two tangents applied to a circle, CD a chord drawn parallel to AB, and AE, BE straight lines inflected to a point E in the opposite circumference; then will the chord CD be cut in continued proportion at the points F and G, or CF : CG : : CG : CD.

For join BD, BC, and CE. Because the tangent AB is equal to AC (III. 22. cor.), the angle ABC is equal to ACB (I. 10.); but ABC is equal to the angle BCD (I. 22.), and to the angle BDC (III. 21.); whence (VI. 11.) the triangles BAC and BDC are similar, and AB : BC : : BC : CD, and consequently (V. 6.) $BC^2 = AB.CD$. Again, the triangles CBG and CBE are similar, for they have a common angle CBE, and the angle BCG or BCD is equal to BDC or BEC (III. 16.): Wherefore BG : BC : : BC : BE, and $BC^2 = BG.BE$. Hence $AB.CD = BG.BE$, and AB : BE : : BG : CD; but FG being parallel to AB, AB : BE : : FG : GE (VI. 2.), and

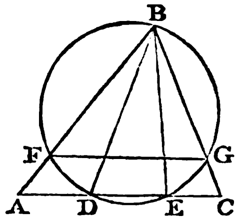


consequently FG : GE : : BG : CD ; therefore (V. 6.) FG.CD= BG.GE ; and since (III. 26.) BG.GE=CG.GD, it follows that CG.GD=FG.CD, and FG : CG : : GD : CD, and hence (V. 10.) CF : CG : : CG : CD.

PROP. V. THEOR.

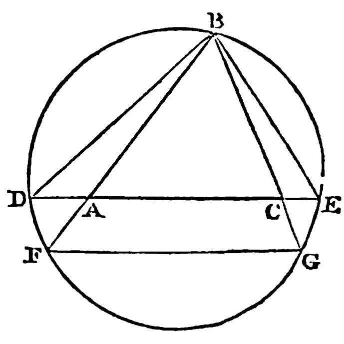
If, from the vertex of a triangle, two straight lines be drawn, making equal angles with the sides and cutting the base; the squares of the sides are proportional to the rectangles under the adjacent segments of the base.

In the triangle ABC, let the straight lines BD and BE make the angle ABD equal to CBE; then $AB^2 : BC^2 :: DA.AE : EC.CD$.



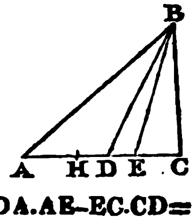
For (III. 9. cor.) through the points B, D, and E describe a circle, meeting the sides AB and BC of the triangle in F and G, and join FG.

Because the angles DBF and EBG are equal, they stand (III. 16. cor.) on equal arcs DF and EG, and consequently (III. 18. cor.) FG is parallel to DE. Whence (VI. 1.) AB : BC : : AF : CG, and therefore (V. 13.) $AB^2 : BC^2 ::$ AB.AF : BC.CG; but (III. 26.) AB.AF = DA.AE, and BC . CG = EC.CD. Wherefore $AB^2 : CD^2 ::$ DA.AE : EC.CD.

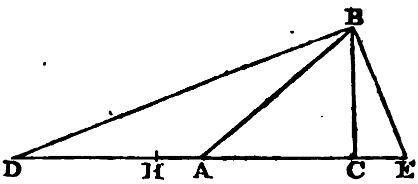


If the triangle ABC be right-angled at C, and the vertical

lines BD and BE cut the base internally: then $BC^2+AC.CE:BC^2::AE:CD$. For make AH equal to EC. Because $AB^2:BC^2::DA.AE:EC.CD$, and, (II. 10.) $AB^2=AC^2+BC^2$, therefore $AC^2+BC^2:BC^2::DA.AE:EC.CD$, and, by division, $AC^2:BC^2::DA.DE-EC.CD:EC.CD$. But, by successive decomposition, $DA.AE-EC.CD=DA.AC-DA.EC-EC.CD=DA.AC-EC.AC=AC.HD$; whence $AC^2:BC^2::AC.HD:EC.CD$, and (V. 13. and cor.) $AC.EC:BC^2::EC.HD:EC.CD$, or (V. 8.) $::HD:CD$; consequently (V. 9.) $BC^2+AC.EC:BC^2::HC:CD$; but, AH being equal to EC, HC is equal to AE; wherefore $BC^2+AC.EC:BC^2::AE:CD$.



If the vertical lines BD, BE cut the base AC of a right-angled triangle ACB externally; then will $BC^2-AC.EC:BC^2::AE:CD$. For make $AH=EC$. It is demonstrated as before, that $AC^2:BC^2::DA.AE-EC.CD:EC.CD$; but $DA.AE-EC.CD=DA.AC+DA.EC-EC.CD=DA.AC-EC.AC=AC.HD$: wherefore $AC^2:BC^2::AC.HD:EC.CD$, and $AC.EC:BC^2::EC.HD:EC.CD::HD:CD$, and consequently $BC^2-AC.EC:BC^2::HC$ or $AE:CD$.



PROP. VI. THEOR.

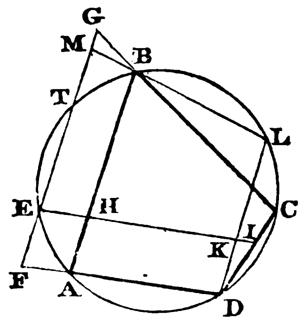
If through any point in the circumference of a circle, two straight lines be drawn parallel to adjacent sides of an inscribed quadrilateral figure, and meeting opposite sides, the rectangles under their segments will be equivalent.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle, and from any point E in the circumference, the lines EHI and

FEG be drawn parallel to the sides AD and AB, and meeting the opposite pairs AB, DC, and AD, BC; the rectangle HEI will be equivalent to FEG.

For draw DL parallel to AB, and join LB, which produce to meet FG in M.

Because FG and DL are parallel to AB, the intercepted arcs AE and AD are equal to BT, BL; consequently the corresponding chords are likewise equal. Wherefore, AE and BT, being formed, the triangles AFE and BMT are evidently equal, and hence BM and MT are equal to AF and FE. It is also manifest that FH and DE are parallelograms, and therefore FA and FD are equal to EH and EK. Again, the triangle BGM is similar to DKI, for the angle GBM or LBC is equal to KDI or LDC, and, the angle BMG is equal to MBA, and (III.17.cor. 2.) to ADL, or to DKI; whence BM : MG : : DK : KI, and BM.KI= MG.DK, that is, FA.KI =MG.FE. But, from the property of the circle, FA.FD= FE.FT; and adding these rectangles to the preceding, it follows that FA (FD+KI)=FE (FT+MG); that is, FA (EK+KI)= FE (EM+MG) or EH.EI=FE.EG.



Cor. 1. If the two points C and D coincide, the quadrilateral figure passes into a triangle, and the side CD is represented by a tangent.

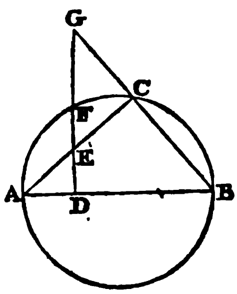
Cor. 2. If the point B likewise coincides with A, the side AB will become a tangent, and AD will be the only side of the figure that remains.

Cor. 3. If the points B and C merge into one point, and also A and D into another; the figure will be represented by a chord, and the sides BC and AD will become tangents. In this case, the points H and I coincide, and consequently the rectangle FEG will be equal to the square of EH.

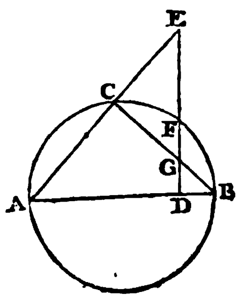
PROP. VII. THEOR.

The perpendicular within a circle, is a mean proportional to the segments formed on it by straight lines, drawn from the extremities of the diameter, through any point in the circumference.

Let the straight lines AEC and BCG, drawn from the extremities of the diameter of a circle through the point C in the circumference, cut the perpendicular to AB; the part DF within the circle is a mean proportional between the segments DE and DG.



For the angle ACB, being in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 19.), and the angle ABG is common to the two triangles ABC and GBD, which are, therefore, similar (VI. 11.). Hence the remaining angle BAC is equal to BGD, and consequently the triangles ADE and GDB are similar; wherefore AD : DE : : DG : DB, (and V. 6.) AD.DB = DE.DG. But (III. 26. cor.), the rectangle under AD and DB is equivalent to the square of DF; whence DE.DG=DF^2, and (V. 6.) DE : DF : : DF : DG.

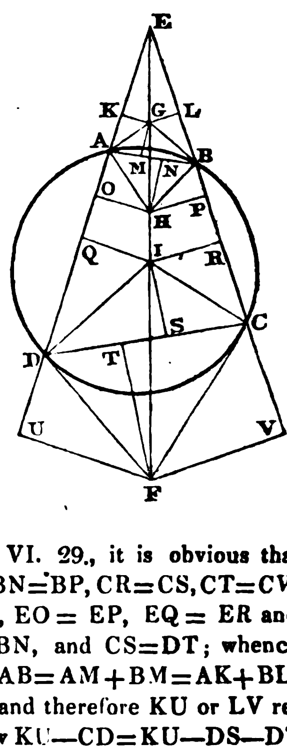


PROP. VII. THEOR.

The area of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle, is a mean proportional between the rectangle of the excesses of the semiperimeter above any two sides, and the rectangle of the excesses of the semiperimeter above the other two sides.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle; its area is a mean proportional between the rectangle under the excesses of the semiperimeter above the sides AD and CD, and the rectangle under its excesses above the sides AB and BC.

If the opposite sides of the quadrilateral figure be parallel, the semiperimeter will evidently be some of its length and breadth, and consequently the rectangles of the excesses will be merely the squares of that length and breadth, to which the area is a mean proportional.



But if two of the sides AD and BC be inclined, produce them to meet in E and draw EF bisecting the angle which they form: draw likewise from the corners A and D, the lines AG, AH, DG and DF, bisecting the exterior and interior angles of the figure; join BG, BH, CI and CF, and from the points G, H, I and F, let fall the perpendiculars GK, GL, GM, HO, HN, HP, IQ, IR, IS, FU, FT and FV.

It is easy to see that the three perpendiculars from each of the points G, H, I and T are equal; and pursuing the same preliminary demonstration as in VI. 29., it is obvious that AK=AM, AN=AO, BL=BM, BN=BP, CR=CS, CT=CV, DQ = DS, DT = DU, EK=EL, EO= EP, EQ= ER and EU=EV, and likewise AM =BN, and CS=DT; whence OQ=PR, and KU=LV; but AB=AM+BM=AK+BL, and CD=CT+DT=CV+DU, and therefore KU or LV represents the semiperimeter. Now KU—CD=KU—DS—DT = KU — DQ — DU = KQ; KU — AD = KA + DU = KA + CR; KU — AB = KU — AM — BM = KU—AK—AO=OU and; LV—BC= LB+CV=AO+CV.

The exterior angle EAB is (III. 17. cor. 2.) equal to BCD, and these angles and their adjacent angles BAD and DCV are bisected by AG and AH, CI and CF; wherefore the right-angled triangles GKA and AOH, IRC and CVF are all similar. Consequently AK : KG : : OH : OA : : CR : RI : : FV : CV, and (V. 19. El.) AK+CR : KG+RI : : OH+FV : OA+CV; whence (V. 13. El.) KQ (AK + CR) : OU (KG + RI) : : KQ(OH+FV) : OU (OA+CV). But it was shown, that KQ is the excess of the semiperimeter KU above the side CD, that AK+CR, or AK+DU, is the excess of KU above the side AD, that OU is the excess of KU above KO or the side AB, and that OA+CV, or LV + CV, is the excess likewise of the semiperimeter above the side BC. The extreme terms of the analogy are hence the rectangles of the excesses of the semiperimeter above the sides CD and AD, and above the opposite sides AB and BC. It only remains therefore to prove, that the mean terms are each equivalent to the area of the quadrilateral figure.

Now, this quadrilateral figure ABCD is evidently composed of double the triangles HOA, HNB, IQD and IRC, increased or diminished by the double of the rhomboid HOQI, according as the point H lies nearer to the vertex E, or more remote than the point I: The area of ABCD is therefore equivalent to $HO.AB+IQ.DC=\pm(HO+IQ)\,OQ=HQ(AB\pm OQ) + IQ\,(CD\pm OQ)=HO.KQ+IQ.OU$.

But since the triangles AHN and ISC are similar, and also BMG and DFT, it follows that AN : NH : : IS : SC, and BM : MG : : FT : TD; whence HN : MG : : FT : IS, and KG : OH : : IQ : FV : : EK : EO : : EQ : EU, or, by division, KG : HO : : KQ : OU, and IQ.FV : : KQ.OU; wherefore HO.KQ = OU.KG, and the area of ABCD = OU (KG+IQ or IR). Again, IQ.OU=KQ.FV; and consequently the area of the quadrilateral figure is likewise equivalent to KQ (HO+FV). The proposition is therefore established.

For the substance of this demonstration, I am indebted to the talents and assiduity of my ingenious friend Mr Arnott.

The Appendix to the books of Geometry cannot fail, by its novelty and singular beauty, to prove highly interesting. The first part is taken from a scarce tract of Schooten, who was Professor of Mathematics at Leyden, early in the seventeenth century. But the second and most important part is chiefly selected from a most ingenious work of Mascheroni, a celebrated Italian mathematician; which in 1798 was translated into French, under the title of *Geometrie du Compas*. It will be perceived, however, that I have adapted the arrangement to my own views, and have demonstrated the propositions more strictly in the spirit of the ancient geometry.

NOTES TO TRIGONOMETRY.

1. It was the pursuit of Practical Astronomy that led the Greeks to cultivate Trigonometry. But the Elements of Geometry had been reduced to a systematic form before the foundation of this science was laid. Aristarchus of Samos, a contemporary of Euclid, and a very ingenious astronomer, attempted to determine the relative distances of the sun and moon by a curious observation; yet the rude and circuitous way which he took, in solving the problem, to show that an arc of three degrees is less than the 18th, and greater than the 20th part of the radius, attests the slow progress of the art of calculation.

About a century afterwards, the great outlines of Trigonometry were traced by Hipparchus of Rhodes, the most original and powerful genius perhaps of all antiquity, who flourished between the years 125 and 160 before the Christian æra. If we consider the novelty of his views, the extent of his inquiries, the fecundity of his resources, and the accuracy and immensity of the calculations which he performed with such cumbrous instruments and involved materials—we are filled with wonder and admiration. The main object of his pursuits was the advancement of astronomy. Hipparchus adopted the usual division of the circumference of the circle into 360

degrees; but he divided the radius into 60 equal parts, which he called likewise degrees, and repeated the successive subdivision by 60 for primes, seconds, &c. He derived the rules of Trigonometry from the properties of lines *inscribed* within the circle, and now termed *chords*, which he measured in sexagesimal parts of the radius. He had composed a work in twelve books expressly on the calculation of chords, and appears to have computed these important lines to every half degree of the semicircumference. Unfortunately some fragments only of his labours are preserved.

Trigonometry, in this shape, remained stationary during the space of 300 years, till Ptolemy, who cultivated Astronomy and Geography in the Museum of Alexandria with indefatigable ardour, introduced a few subordinate improvements. In his Analemma, which deduces the construction of sun-dials from the orthographic projection of the sphere, this celebrated author, who seems to have borrowed liberally from Hipparchus, employs *half-chords*, instead of *chords*, in his geometrical delineations; and, had he pursued that simple idea, he might have anticipated the use of *sines*, the introduction of which was reserved for the Arabians.

Ptolemy recomputed the chords to every two degrees of the semicircumference, and, in his *Almagest*, or Μεγαλη Συνταξις, he has explained distinctly the mode of proceeding. On this occasion, he appears first to have brought into notice the beautiful theorem which forms the 20th proposition of the sixth Book of the Elements of Geometry.

An an object of considerable interest, I here subjoin Ptolemy's table of chords, or, as he styles it, the *Canon of Inscribed Lines*—Κανονιον των εν κυκλῳ ευθειων. It will be found to be far more precise and accurate than we should have expected; and it shows the wonderful address and patience which the Greeks exercised in performing calculations with their complicated system of arithmetical notation. For the sake of instituting a comparison, I have converted the sexagesimals into decimals, and have likewise annexed, from the more elaborate modern tables, the chords, expressed sexagesimally. The coincidence will appear very remarkable, seldom differing by unit in the last place.

Table of Chords to every two Degrees of the Semicircumference, in Sexagesimals, and the same as given by Ptolemy, and likewise converted into Decimals.

Arcs.	Chords. Sexagesimal Scale. By Modern Tables.	Chords. Sexagesimal Scale. By Ptolemy.	Chords. Decimals. By Ptolemy.	Arcs.	Chords. Sexagesimal Scale. By Modern Tables.	Chords. Sexagesimal Scale. By Ptolemy.	Chords. Decimals. By Ptolemy.
2°	2° 5′ 39″ 26‴	2° 5′ 40″	.0349074	92	86° 19′ 14″ 48‴	86° 19′ 15″	1.43865[illegible]
4	4 11 16 35	4 11 16	.0697963	94	87 45 44 58	87 45 45	1.4627[illegible]
6	6 16 49 9	6 16 49	.1046713	96	89 10 38 33	89 10 39	1.4862[illegible]
8	8 22 14 48	8 22 15	.1395539	98	90 33 54 33	90 33 55	1.5094[illegible]
10	10 27 31 16	10 27 32	.1743148	100	91 51 31 11	91 51 32	1.[illegible]
12	12 32 36 19	12 32 36	.2090555	102	93 15 27 4	93 15 27	1.5542[illegible]
14	14 37 27 32	14 37 27	.2437361	104	94 33 40 40	94 39 41	1.5760[illegible]
16	16 42 2 47	16 42 3	.2783472	106	95 50 10 32	95 50 11	1.59[illegible]
18	18 46 19 42	18 46 19	.3128637	108	97 4 55 21	97 4 56	1.61[illegible]
20	20 50 16 1	20 50 16	.3472963	110	98 17 53 40	98 17 54	1.638[illegible]
22	22 53 49 29	22 53 49	.3816157	112	99 29 4 15	99 29 5	1.6580[illegible]
24	24 56 57 51	24 56 58	.4158261	114	100 38 25 42	100 38 26	1.677[illegible]
26	26 59 38 53	26 59 38	.4498981	116	101 45 56 47	101 45 57	1.69[illegible]
28	29 1 50 16	29 1 50	.4838426	118	102 51 36 16	102 51 37	1.714[illegible]
30	31 3 29 48	31 3 30	.5176589	120	103 55 22 58	103 55 23	1.732[illegible]
32	33 4 35 21	33 4 35	.5512731	122	104 57 15 43	104 57 16	1.749[illegible]
34	35 5 4 34	35 5 5	.5847454	124	105 57 13 22	105 57 14	1.765[illegible]
36	37 4 55 21	37 4 55	.6180324	126	106 55 14 48	106 55 15	1.78[illegible]
38	39 4 5 28	39 4 5	.6511343	128	107 51 19 0	107 51 20	1.797[illegible]
40	41 2 32 41	41 2 33	.6840417	130	108 45 24 58	108 45 25	1.812[illegible]
42	43 0 14 56	43 0 15	.7167361	132	109 37 31 39	109 37 32	1.82[illegible]
44	44 57 10 3	44 57 10	.7492130	134	110 27 38 7	110 27 39	1.841[illegible]
46	46 53 15 50	46 53 16	.7814630	136	111 15 43 27	111 15 44	1.854[illegible]
48	48 48 30 13	48 48 30	.8134722	138	112 1 46 44	112 1 47	1.867[illegible]
50	50 42 51 6	50 42 51	.8452361	140	112 45 47 12	112 45 48	1.879[illegible]
52	52 36 16 19	52 36 16	.8767407	142	113 27 44 2	113 27 44	1.891[illegible]
54	54 28 43 54	54 28 44	.9079815	144	114 7 36 24	114 7 37	1.902[illegible]
56	56 20 11 44	56 20 12	.9389444	146	114 45 23 40	114 45 24	1.912[illegible]
58	58 10 37 45	58 10 38	.9696204	148	115 21 5 3	115 21 6	1.92[illegible]
60	60 0 0 0	60 0 0	1.0000000	150	115 54 39 56	115 54 40	1.931[illegible]
62	61 48 16 28	61 48 17	1.0300787	152	116 26 7 45	116 26 8	1.940[illegible]
64	63 35 25 8	63 35 26	1.0598426	154	116 55 27 53	116 55 28	1.94[illegible]
66	65 21 24 3	65 21 24	1.0892778	156	117 22 39 46	117 22 40	3.956[illegible]
68	67 6 11 20	67 6 12	1.1183889	158	117 47 42 57	117 47 43	1.963[illegible]
70	68 49 45 0	68 49 45	1.1471528	160	118 10 36 58	118 10 37	1.969[illegible]
72	70 32 3 14	70 32 3	1.1755694	162	118 31 21 21	118 31 22	1.975[illegible]
74	72 13 4 5	72 13 4	1.2036296	164	118 49 55 49	118 49 56	1.980[illegible]
76	73 52 45 46	71 52 46	1.2313261	166	119 6 19 56	119 6 20	1.98[illegible]
78	75 31 6 25	75 31 7	1.2586435	168	119 20 33 28	119 20 34	1.989[illegible]
80	77 8 4 15	77 8 5	1.2855787	170	119 32 36 7	119 32 37	1.99[illegible]
82	78 43 37 29	78 43 38	1.3121204	172	119 42 27 41	119 42 29	1.9[illegible]
84	80 17 44 25	80 17 45	1.3382639	174	119 50 7 57	119 50 9	1.99[illegible]
86	81 50 23 19	81 50 24	1.3640000	176	119 55 36 50	119 55 38	1.9[illegible]
88	83 21 32 26	83 21 33	1.3893191	178	119 58 54 12	119 58 55	1.9[illegible]
90	84 51 10 8	84 51 10	1.4142130	180	120 0 0 0	120 0 0	2.00[illegible]

To understand the ancient writers on Astronomy and Trigonometry, it is necessary to be familiar with the methods of converting sexagesimals into the ordinary decimal subdivision. I shall therefore give one or two examples. Suppose it were required to estimate, in decimal parts of the radius, the length which Ptolemy assigns for the chord of 36°, or the side of the inscribed decagon: The conversion may be performed either by a successive multiplication by 10, or by an ascending division by 60.

37° 4′ 55″	
10	
6.10 49 10	
10	
1.48 11 40	
10	
8.1 56 40	
10	
0.19 26 40	
10	
3.14 26 40	
10	
2.24 26 40	
10	
4.0 26 40	

Or more concisely, thus:

60	55
60	4.9167
60	37.081945
	.6180324

The result, .6180324, is true to every place.

Again, let it be required to express sexagesimally the chord of 80°, or 1.2855752: The operation will consist in a repeated multiplication by 60.
The result is 77° 8′ 4¼″; but Ptolemy makes the last figure to be 5″.

1.2855752
. 60
77.134512
60
8.07072
60
4.2432

Albatenius or Geber, the son of Mahomet, an Arabian Prince, who flourished about the year 880 of the Christian æra, wrote a system of Astronomy, in which he improved on the Almagest of Ptolemy. To simplify the calculations of Trigonometry, he substituted for chords, their halves, which, in the Arabic language, he named *Gib*, to signify *folded* or *doubled up*. This word, appropriated to the *semichord*, was afterwards translated into Latin by the term *sinus*, from which comes the modern denomination *sine*. Albatenius likewise introduced *versed sines*, and thereby improved the rules of Trigonometry. He made even a decided step towards the formation of *tangents*; for, in treating of dialling, he computed a table of the lengths of the shadows of the vertical style, though

only in digits or twelfth parts of its altitude. Some notion of *secants* was also entertained by him.

Ebn Jounis, who flourished under the Calif Hakem, and died A. D. 1008, carried still farther the improvements of Trigonometry. He computed a table of *shadows* or *tangents*, in sexagesimals and to a radius of 60 degrees. He particularly studied the orthographic projection of the sphere, and gave some useful theorems in Practical Astronomy.

Ebn Jounis was the first mathematician who employed subsidiary arcs for abridging his calculations; changing sometimes tangents into secants, to facilitate the extraction of roots. It deserves to be remarked, that this astronomer, having in one of his computations exhibited a number consisting of 11 places of figures and written in the Indian characters, takes the trouble to explain each of them in succession,—a decisive proof, that those numerals had been recently communicated to the Arabians, and were still not generally understood by them.

To compute the sines of the quadrant, this able astronomer sets out from certain arcs, which he calls primitive, being those of 60°, 120°, 90°, 36°, 144°, 72° and 108°, and investigates, through various combinations, the sines of their doubles and their halves, of their sums and their differences. In this way, he finds the sine of 1° to be 1° 2′ 49″ 43‴ 2^{iv}, which differs only in the last place from 1° 2′ 49″ 43‴ 6^{iv}, which our tables would give; but he stopped at thirds, though he calculated the sines for every 10 primes or minutes.

Aboul Wefa of Bagdad, who flourished about the year 987 of our æra, gave a sexagesimal table of *tangents*, or of *the shadows of arcs* to every degree of the quadrant, but which has been lost. As an instance of his great accuracy, I may cite 34° 38′ 27″ 39‴ 38^{iv}, the measure he assigns for the tangent of 30°, which, converted into decimals, makes .57735028, having only an excess of a digit in the eighth place. Wefa likewise noticed the *cotangents*, which he called the *upright shadows*, stating, with the same remarkable accuracy, that of 30° to be 1.43° 55′ 22″ 58‴. He even indicated *secants*, which he termed the *diameters of shadows*, considering them as subtending the right angle made by the radius and the tangents.

The Arabians, thus aided by the denary system of numerals, extended greatly the powers of calculation. They could readily extract the cube root of any number, which the Greeks, with all their penetration, could never achieve. Geber, a native of the Moorish kingdom of Grenada, early in the twelfth century, enriched Spherical Trigonometry, by the invention of one of its principal theorems.

The revival of letters among the Christian nations was, about the middle of the fifteenth century, invigorated by the noble acquisition of the art of printing. The study of literature was soon followed by the pursuit of science. George of Bürbach, near Vienna, and thence commonly named Purbachius, born in 1425, but unfortunately cut off by a premature death, appeared the first in Europe who devoted himself to the cultivation of Astronomy. He studied the Almagest of Ptolemy through the dark medium of a Latin version framed on the Arabic translation, and exercised his ingenuity and patience in extricating from a mass of obscurity and inaccuracy the meaning of the original text. As he derived his information from that source, it is curious to observe, that, making the diameter of the circle to contain 120 equal parts, he reckons in round numbers the circumference of the circle to consist of 377. If from these numbers we subtract 7 and 22, the terms of the Archimedean proportion, we shall obtain 113 and 355, the famous approximation proposed by Metius.

Purbachius followed the Greeks and Arabians in dividing the radius into 60 equal parts; but, instead of subdividing them again successively by 60, he carried forward the subdivision by 100, and avoided the separate notation of the subordinate parts. He thus made the radius to consist of 600,000 parts, in which he expressed, without any breaks, the sines and tangents computed likewise to every 10 minutes. In calculating these tables, he sets out with the arc of 15°, which, after Arzachel and the Arabians, he calls *Kardaga;* its sine being derived from the bisection of the arc of 30°, or the half of that subtended by the side of a hexagon. He likewise finds the sines of 30°, 45°, 60°, and 75°; from the well-known theorem, that the rectangle under the radius and the difference between

the sines of two arcs is equivalent to twice the rectangle under the sine of half the difference and the cosine of half the sum of the arcs themselves. Thus,

First Kardaga, $\sin 15° - \sin 0° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 7\frac{1}{2}°$.
Second Kardaga, $\sin 30° - \sin 15° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 22\frac{1}{2}°$.
Third Kardaga, $\sin 45° - \sin 30° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 37\frac{1}{2}°$.
Fourth Kardaga, $\sin 60° - \sin 45° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 52\frac{1}{2}°$.
Fifth Kardaga, $\sin 75° - \sin 60° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 67\frac{1}{2}°$.
Sixth Kardaga, $\sin 90° - \sin 75° = 2 \sin 7\frac{1}{2}°. \cos 82\frac{1}{2}°$.

Purbachius found the sines of the multiples of $7\frac{1}{2}°$ by a similar process, and thence he computed the sines of the multiples of its half, or $3\frac{3}{4}°$. This small arc is contained 24 times in a quadrant—a circumstance which deserves particular notice, as it coincides with the practice of the Hindu Astronomy.

John Müller of Koningsberg, and therefore styled *de Monte-regio* or *Regiomontanus*, the scholar and successor of Purbachius, carried those improvements much farther. After some hesitation, he finally rejected every trace of the sexagesimal subdivision of the radius, which he made to contain 10,000,000 equal parts; he therefore computed the sines and tangents for every minute of the quadrant to seven places of figures, and he likewise annexed the secants. In forming these complete tables, Regiomontanus availed himself not only of the ordinary properties, $\cos a^2 = 1 - \sin a^2$, and $2 \sin a^2 = 1 - \cos 2a$, but of a curious theorem of his own invention, $(\sin a - \sin b)^2 + \cos(a - \cos b)^2 = 4 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2}(a - b)$, which he demonstrated geometrically.

Besides the repeated bisections of the *Kardaga*, Müller derived the sines of another class of arcs from the side of the decagon. He thus computed sines of 24°, 12°, 6°, 3°, $1\frac{1}{2}°$, and finally 45′; the rest were filled up by different interpolations. In his book of "Triangles," he gave another table for discovering the angle of a right-angled triangle, from the base and perpendicular without seeking the hypotenuse. It was in fact an imperfect table of *tangents*, though not so named by him, and calculated only for each degree of the quadrant. Yet this he styled *Canon Fœcundus*, without applying it to the improvement of Trigonometry. Müller died in 1476, when he had only reached the age of 40.

Reinhold, who died in 1553, Professor of Mathematics at Wurtemburg, computed a table of *tangents* to every minute; and shortly afterwards Maurolycus of Messina gave a table of *secants*, which he syled *Tabula Benefica*. Rheticus, with incredible labour, next produced a complete set of trigonometrical tables, calculated to 15 places of figures for every 10 seconds.

The famous Vieta, born at Fontenay in Lower Poitou, in 1540, and who died at Paris in 1603, may be regarded as the person who completed the Modern Trigonometry. He enriched it with new theorems, and reduced the whole into a regular system. Besides other properties, he first noticed the very simple one, which derives the sines of arcs exceeding 60° from mere addition. In his book on triangles, printed in 1579, he gave tables of sines, tangents, and secants, computed to every minute, in a collected form; but in allusion to the right-angled triangle, he referred the sines to the perpendicular, the tangents to the base, and the secants to the hypotenuse. He afterwards attempted to name the tangents *prosinus*, and the secants *transinus*.

In this state did the trigonometrical tables continue without alteration, till Stevinus introduced the Decimal Arithmetic, about the end of the sixteenth century. Yet the sexesimal system was retained by Bressius in 1581, and a considerable time elapsed before the radius came to be reckoned as merely unit; and even then, the notation of the descending numbers was loaded with repeated accents like the primes, seconds, &c., or with small figures inclosed in circles. The capital improvement, which produced the utmost simplification, was effected by Napier, the illustrious inventor of Logarithms, who proposed, in his *Rhabdologia*, to discard those subsidiary marks, and merely to distinguish the place of units by a full point. These lines, now called the natural sines, tangents, secants, &c. are often superseded by the use of their logarithms; but as they furnish useful examples for training the pupil to calculation, I shall here give a specimen of them.

Table of Sines, Tangents and Secants, to every Degree of the Quadrant.

Deg.	Sine.	Cosine.	Tangent.	Cotangent.	Secant.	Cosecant.	Deg.
1	0174524	9998477	0174551	57.289962	1.0001523	57.298688	89
2	0348995	9993908	0349208	28.636253	1.0006095	28.653708	88
3	0523360	9986295	0524078	19.081137	1.0013723	19.107323	87
4	0697565	9975641	0699268	14.300666	1.0024419	14.335587	86
5	0871557	9961947	0874887	11.430052	1.0038198	11.473713	85
6	1045285	9945219	1051042	9.5143645	1.0055083	9.5667722	84
7	1218693	9925462	1227846	8.1443494	1.0075098	8.2055090	83
8	1391731	9902681	1405408	7.1153697	1.0098276	7.1852965	82
9	1564345	9876883	1583844	6.3137515	1.0124651	6.3924532	81
10	1736482	9848078	1763270	5.6712818	1.0154266	5.7587705	80
11	1908090	9816272	1943803	5.1445540	1.0187167	5.2408431	79
12	2079117	9781476	2125566	4.7046301	1.0223406	4.8097343	78
13	2249511	9743701	2308682	4.3314759	1.0263041	4.4454115	77
14	2419219	9702957	2493280	4.0107809	1.0306136	4.1335655	76
15	2588190	9659258	2679492	3.7320508	1.0352762	3.8637033	75
16	2756374	9612617	2867454	3.4874144	1.0402994	3.6279553	74
17	2923717	9563048	3057307	3.2708526	1.0456918	3.4203036	73
18	3090170	9510565	3249197	3.0776835	1.0514622	3.2360680	72
19	3255682	9455186	3443276	2.9042109	1.0576207	3.0715535	71
20	3420201	9396926	3639702	2.7474774	1.0641778	2.9238044	70
21	3583679	9335804	3838640	2.6050891	1.0711450	2.7904281	69
22	3746066	9271839	4040262	2.4750869	1.0785347	2.6694672	68
23	3907311	9205049	4244748	2.3558524	1.0863604	2.5593047	67
24	4067366	9135455	4452287	2.2460368	1.0946363	2.4585933	66
25	1226183	9063078	4663077	2.1445069	1.1033779	3.3662016	65
26	4383711	8987940	4877326	2.0503038	1.1126019	2.2811720	64
27	4539905	8910065	5095254	1.9626105	1.1223262	2.2026893	63
28	4694716	8829476	5317094	1.8807265	1.1325701	2.1300545	62
29	4848096	8746197	5543091	1.8040478	1.1433541	2.0626653	61
30	5000000	8660254	5773503	1.7320508	1.1547005	2.0000000	60
31	5150381	8571673	6008606	1.6642795	1.1666334	1.9416040	59
32	5299193	8480481	6248694	1.6003345	1,1791784	1.8870799	58
33	5446390	8386706	6494076	1.5398619	1.1923633	1.8360785	57
34	5591929	8290376	6745085	1.4825610	1.2062179	1.7882916	56
35	5735764	8191520	7002075	1.4281480	1.2207746	1.7434468	55
36	5877853	8090170	7265425	1.3763819	1.2360680	1.7013016	54
37	6018150	7986355	7535541	1.3270448	1.2521357	1.6616401	53
38	6156615	7880108	7812856	1.2799416	1.2690182	1.6242692	52
39	6293204	7771460	8097840	1.2348972	1.2867596	1.5890157	51
40	6427876	7660444	8390996	1.1917536	1.3054073	1.5557238	50
41	6560590	7547096	8692867	1.1503684	1.3250130	1.5242531	49
42	6691306	7431448	9004040	1.1106125	1.3456327	1.4944765	48
43	6819984	7313537	9325151	1·0723687	1.3673275	1.4662792	47
44	6946584	7193398	9656888	1.0355303	1.3901686	1.4395565	46
45	7071068	7071068	1000000	1.0000000	1.4142136	1.4142136	45
	Cosine.	Sine.	Cotangent	Tangent.	Cosecant.	Secant.	

Briggs, the celebrated improver of the logarithmic canon, attempted to modify the sexagesimal division of arcs, by retaining the degrees, and only subdividing them again successively by 100. But this project has not been adopted, unless that the decimal parts of seconds have sometimes been preferred to the ordinary succession of thirds, fourths, &c.

2. The French philosophers have, at the instance of Borda, lately proposed and adopted the centesimal division of the quadrant, as easier, more consistent, and better adapted to our scale of arithmetic. Having divided the quadrant into 100 degrees, they subdivide each degree into 100 minutes, each of these again into 100 seconds, and pursue the subdivision as far as may be necessary. An astronomical student is therefore obliged to become acquainted with the mutual transformation of the sexagesimal and the centesimal divisions. As an example, I shall select the measure .6366197724, which was found in p. 199. to express the radius of a circle whose circumference is 4. This number evidently denotes, in decimal parts of the quadrant, the length of an arc equal to the radius, and would be written thus in the centesimal mode, $63^{\circ}\,66'\,19''\,77'''\,24^{iv}$. To convert it into the ordinary degrees, minutes, seconds, thirds, &c. it must be multiplied first by 90, and the decimals again successively by 60. The result is, $57^{\circ}\,17'\,44''\,48'''\,22\frac{1}{2}^{iv}$, which represents sexagesimally an arc equal to the radius.

$$\begin{array}{r} .6366197724 \\ 90 \\ \hline 57.295779516 \\ 60 \\ \hline 17.74677096 \\ 60 \\ \hline 44.8062576 \\ 60 \\ \hline 48.375456 \\ 60 \\ \hline 22.52736 \end{array}$$

Again, the obliquity of the ecliptic at the last summer solstice being $23^{\circ}\,27'\,57''\,36'''$, this would be easily converted into centesimals, by ascending from the lowest parts, dividing by 60, annexing the preceding number, and repeating the process till the final division by 90. The result is $26^{\circ}\,7'33''\,33'''$.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} 60 & 36 \\ \hline 60 & 57\cdot 6 \\ \hline 60 & 27.96 \\ \hline 90 & 23.466 \\ \hline & .26073333 \end{array}$$

I shall now give a specimen of the sines and tangents computed to each centesimal degree of the quadrant.

TABLE of SINES to each degree of the Centesimal Division of the Quadrant.

Arcs.	Sines.	Arcs.	Sines.	Arcs.	Sines.	Arcs.	Sines.	Arcs.	Sines.
1	0157073	21	3259174	41	6004202	61	8181497	81	9557930
2	0314108	22	3387379	42	6129071	62	8270806	82	9602937
3	0471065	23	3534748	43	6252427	63	8358074	83	9645574
4	0627905	24	3681246	44	6374240	64	8443279	84	9685832
5	0784591	25	3826834	45	6494480	65	8526402	85	9723699
6	0941083	26	3971479	46	6613119	66	8607420	86	9759168
7	1097343	27	4115144	47	6730125	67	8686315	87	9792228
8	1253332	28	4257793	48	6845471	68	8763067	88	9822873
9	1409012	29	4399392	49	6959128	69	8837656	89	9851093
10	1564345	30	4539305	50	7071068	70	8910065	90	9876883
11	1719291	31	4679298	51	7181263	71	8980276	91	9900235
12	1873813	32	4817537	52	7289687	72	9048271	92	9921147
13	2027873	33	4954587	53	7396311	73	9114033	93	9939617
14	2181432	34	5090414	54	7501111	74	9177546	94	9955620
15	2334454	35	5224986	55	7604060	75	9238795	95	9969177
16	2486899	36	5358268	56	7705132	76	9297765	96	9980269
17	2638730	37	5490228	57	7804304	77	9354440	97	9988896
18	2789911	38	5620834	58	7901550	78	9408808	98	9995066
19	2940403	39	5750053	59	7996847	79	9460854	99	9998760
20	3090170	40	5877853	60	8090170	80	9510565	100	1000000

The sines corresponding to the intermediate minutes might be easily found from this formula,

$$\sin(a+d) = \sin a + .01570796.\ d.\cos a - .0001234.\ d^2.\ \sin a + .0000606,\ d^3.\ \cos a;$$

in which the last term will be scarcely ever wanted. Thus, to find the sine of 43° 71′; the series of corrections is,

$$.6252427 + .0087039 - .0000389 + .0000002 = .6339079.$$

The sines corresponding to every decade of the centesimal division of the quadrant, are obtained by the mere process of extracting square roots. Thus,

$$\sin 10^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(3+\sqrt{5})} - \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(5-\sqrt{5})}.$$
$$\sin 20 = \tfrac{1}{4}(-1+\sqrt{5}.$$
$$\sin 30^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(5+\sqrt{5})} - \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(3-\sqrt{5})}.$$
$$\sin 40^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(10-2\sqrt{5})}.$$
$$\sin 60^\circ = \tfrac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}.$$
$$\sin 60^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}(1+\sqrt{5}).$$
$$\sin 70^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}(5+\sqrt{5}) + \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(3-\sqrt{5}.)}$$
$$\sin 80^\circ = \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(3+\sqrt{5})} + \tfrac{1}{4}\sqrt{(5-\sqrt{5})}.$$

It would be superfluous, however, to detail the investigation

of these expressions, which are derived from the sides of the inscribed octagon and decagon.

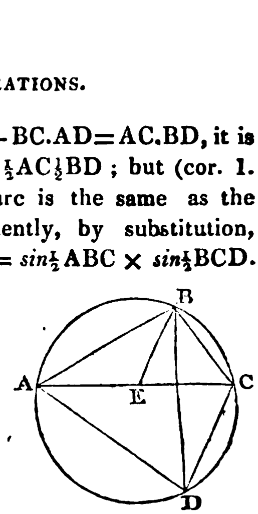
On the basis of this centesimal division, the French have likewise constructed their ingenious system of measures. The distance of the Pole from the Equator was determined with the most scrupulous accuracy, by a chain of triangles extending from Calais to Barcelona, and since prolonged to the Balearic Isles. Of this quadrantal arc, the ten millionth part or the tenth part of a second, and equal to 39.371 English inches, constitutes the *metre*, or unit of linear extension. From the metre again, are derived the several measures of surface and of capacity ; and water, at its greatest degree of contraction, furnishes the standard of weights.

It would be most desirable, if this elegant and universal system were adopted, at least in books of science. Whether, with all its advantages, it be ever destined to obtain a general currency in the ordinary affairs of life, seems extremely questionable. At all events, its reception must necessarily be very slow and gradual ; and, in the meantime, this innovation is productive of much inconvenience, since it not only deranges our habits, but lessens the utility of our delicate instruments and elaborate tables. The fate of the centesimal division may finally depend on the continued merit of the works framed after that model.

3. The remarks contained in the preliminary scholium, will obviate an objection which may be made against the succeeding demonstrations, that they are not strictly applicable, except when the arcs themselves are each less than a quadrant. But this in fact is the only case absolutely wanted, all the derivative arcs being at once comprehended under the definition of the sine or tangent. To follow out the various combinations, would require a fatiguing multiplicity of diagrams, and such labour would still be quite superfluous, because the mode of extending or accommodating the results from the general principle is so easily perceived.

4. The general properties of the sines of compound arcs may be derived with great facility from Prop. 20. of Book VI.

of the Elements. For, since $AB.CD+BC.AD=AC.BD$, it is evident that $\frac{1}{2}AB.\frac{1}{2}CD+\frac{1}{2}BC.\frac{1}{2}AD=\frac{1}{2}AC\frac{1}{2}BD$; but (cor. 1. def. Trig.) the semichord of an arc is the same as the sine of half the arc, and consequently, by substitution, $\sin\frac{1}{2}AB \sin\frac{1}{2}CD+\sin\frac{1}{2}BC\sin\frac{1}{2}ABCD = \sin\frac{1}{2}ABC \times \sin\frac{1}{2}BCD$. Let $\frac{1}{2}AB = L$, $\frac{1}{2}BC = M$, and $\frac{1}{2}CD = N$; wherefore $\frac{1}{2}ABCD = L + M + N$, $\frac{1}{2}ABC = L + M$, and $\frac{1}{2}BCD=M+N$, and hence the general result; $\sin L \sin N + \sin M \sin (L + M + N) = \sin (L + M) \sin (M+N)$, which L, M and N are any arcs whatever. This expression, variously transformed, will exhibit all the theorems respecting sines. For the sake of conciseness, let the radius be denoted as usual by 1, and the semicircumference by π.



1. Put $A=M$, $B=N$, and let L be the complement of A.

Then, $\cos A \sin B+\sin A \sin(A + B+ \frac{\pi}{2} - A) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}-A + A) \sin(A+B)$; that is, since the sine of an arc increased by a quadrant is the same as its cosine, $\sin A \cos B+\cos A \sin B= \sin(A+B)$.

2. Let the arc B be taken on the opposite side, or substitute $-B$ for it in the last expression, and $\sin A \cos B-\cos A \sin B = \sin(A-B)$.

3. In art. 1, for A substitute its complement; then

$$\sin(A+ B)=\sin(\frac{\pi}{2} -A + B)=\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}+A-B) = \cos(A-B),$$

and hence $\cos A \cos B+\sin A \sin B=\cos(A-B)$.

4. In art. 2, likewise substitute for A its complement, and the result will become $\cos A \cos B-\sin A \sin B=\cos(A+B)$.

5. In art. 1, let $A=B$, and $2\sin A \cos A=\sin 2A$.

6. In art. 4, let $A=B$, and $\cos A^2-\sin A^2=\cos 2A$.

7. In art. 3, let $A=B$, and $\cos A^2+\sin A^2=1$.

8. Add the *formulæ* in art. 1. and 2, and $2\sin A \cos B = \sin(A+B)+\sin(A-B)$.

9. Subtract the *formulæ* of art. 2. from that of art. 1, and $2\cos A \sin B=\sin(A+B)-\sin(A-B)$.

10. Conjoin the *formulæ* of art. 3. and 4, and $2\cos A\cos B = \cos(A+B)+\cos(A-B)$.

11. Take the *formulæ* of art. 4. from that of art. 3, and $2\sin A\sin B = \cos(A-B)-\cos(A+B)$.

12. In art. 8, let B be the complement of A, and $2\sin A^2 =$

$$\sin(A+\tfrac{\pi}{2}-A)+\sin(A-\tfrac{\pi}{2}+A)=1-\cos 2A=\text{vers}\,2A.$$

13. In art. 9, let B be the complement of A, and $2\cos A^2 =$

$$\sin(A+\tfrac{\pi}{2}-A)-(\sin A-\tfrac{\pi}{2}+A)=1+\cos 2A=\text{suvers}\,2A.$$

14. In art. 5, instead of A substitute its half, and there results $2\sin\tfrac{1}{2}A\times\cos\tfrac{1}{2}A=\sin A$.

15. In art. 6, likewise substitute the half of A for A, and $(\cos\tfrac{1}{2}A)^2-(\sin\tfrac{1}{2}A)^2=\cos A$.

16. In art. 12, for A substitute its half, and $2(\sin\tfrac{1}{2}A)^2 = 1-\cos A$ or $\sin\tfrac{1}{2}A=\sqrt{(\tfrac{1}{2}(1-\cos A))}=\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}\text{vers}A}$.

17. Make the same substitution in art. 13, and $2(\cos\tfrac{1}{2}A) = 1+\cos A$, or $\cos\tfrac{1}{2}A=\sqrt{(\tfrac{1}{2}(1+\cos A))}=\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}\text{suvers}A}$.

18. In art. 8, transform A and B into $A+B$ and $A-B$, and consequently, for $A+B$ and $A-B$, substitute 2A and 2B; then $2\sin(A+B)\cos(A-B) = \sin 2A+\sin 2B$, or $\sin(A+B)\cos(A-B)=\tfrac{1}{2}(\sin 2A+\sin 2B)$.

19. Make the same transformation in art. 9, and $2+B$ $\cos(A-B) = \sin 2A-\sin 2B$, or $\cos(A+B)\sin(A-B) = \tfrac{1}{2}(\sin 2A-\sin 2B)$.

20. Repeat this transformation in art. 10. and $2\cos(A+B)\cos(A-B) = \cos 2A + \cos 2B$, or $\cos(A+B)\cos(A-B) = \tfrac{1}{2}\cos(2A+\cos 2B)$.

21. The same transformation being still made in art. 11, $2\sin(A+B)\sin(A-B)=\cos 2B-\cos 2A$, or $\sin(A+B)\sin(A-B) = \tfrac{1}{2}(\cos 2B-\cos 2A)$.

22. Suppose $L=N=B$, and $M=A-B$; then the general expression becomes $\sin B^2+\sin(A-B)\sin(A+B)=\sin A^2$, or $\sin(A+B)\sin(A-B)=\sin A^2-\sin B^2$.

23. Instead of A in the last article, take its complement, and

$$\sin(\tfrac{\pi}{2}-A+B)\sin(\tfrac{\pi}{2}-A-B) = \cos(A-\sin B)^2,$$ or

$$\cos(A-B)\cos(A+B)=\cos A^2-\sin B^2.$$

24. Compare art. 21. with 22, and $\frac{1}{2}(cos2Bcos-2A)=sinA^2-sinB^2$.

25. Comparing likewise art. 20. with 23, and $\frac{1}{2}(cos2A+cos2B)=cosA^2-sinB^2$.

26. Resolve the difference of the squares in art. 22. into its factors, and $sin(A+B)sin(A-B)=(sinA+(sinB)sinA-(sinB)$.

27. Make a similar decomposition in art. 23, and $cos(A+B)cos(A-B)=(cosA+sinB)(cosA-sinB)$.

24. In art. 18, instead of A and B take their halves, and $sinA+sinB=2sin\frac{1}{2}(A+B)cos\frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.

25. Make the same change in art. 19, and $sinA-sinB=2sin\frac{1}{2}(A-B)cos\frac{1}{2}(A+B)$.

26. Change likewise art. 20, and $cosB+cosA=2cos\frac{1}{2}(A+B)cos\frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.

27. Do the same thing in art. 21, and $cosB-cosA=2sin\frac{1}{2}(A-B)sin\frac{1}{2}(A+B)$.

28. For A substitute A+B, and by art. 16, $4sin^2\frac{1}{2}(A+B)=2-2cos(A-B)=2-2sinA.sinB-2cosA.cosB$. But by art. 7, $sinA^2+cosB^2=1$, and therefore $4sin^2\frac{1}{2}(A-B)=sinA^2+sinB^2-2sinA.sinB+cos A^2+cos B^2-2cos A.cos B=(sin A-sin B)^2+(cos A-cos B)^2$.

The Arabian Mathematicians appear to have been the first who availed themselves of the trigonometrical tables in abridging the process of extracting roots before the Indian notation was introduced among them.

5. From the third additional proposition to Book III., a very simple expression may be derived for the sum of the sines of progressive arcs. Suppose the diameter AO were drawn; then $BE+CF+DG=HG=HO+DO$, or $2sinAB+2sinAC+2sinAD=HO+sinAD$, and $sin AB+sinAC+sinAD=\frac{1}{2}HO+\frac{1}{2}sin AD=\frac{1}{2}AO.tanBAO+\frac{1}{2}sinAD$. Wherefore, in general, $sin a+sin2a+sin3a \ldots\ldots sin na=\frac{1}{2}vers\, na.cot\frac{1}{2}a+\frac{1}{2}sin\, na$. Hence the sum of the sines in the whole semicircle is $=cot\frac{1}{2}a$. Thus, if the sines for each degree up to 180°, the radius being unit, were added together, the amount would be 114,58866.

6. The sines and cosines of the smaller arcs may be found from art. 16, and 17, by a process of continued bisection. Thus, the sine of 18°, being half the side of an inscribed decagon, is .3098170, and the cosine .9510565. Wherefore sine 9° = $\sqrt{(\frac{1}{2}(1-.9510565))} = \sqrt{(.0244718)} = .1564345$, and cos 9° = $\sqrt{(\frac{1}{2}(1+.9510565))} = \sqrt{(.9755282)} = .9876883$.

But another mode may be stated. Let S denote the sine of any arc, and s and c the sines and cosine of its half; then $(s+c)^2 = s^2+c^2+2sc = 1+S$, and $(s-c)^2 = s^2+c^2-2sc = 1-S$. Wherefore $s+c = \sqrt{(1+S)}$ and $c-s = \sqrt{(1-S)}$; consequently, $s = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{(1+S)} - \sqrt{(1-S)})$, and $c = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{(1+S)}+\sqrt{(1-S.)})$ To apply this expression, the sine of 30 being .5, the sine of 15° $= \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{1.5}-\sqrt{.5}) = \frac{1}{2}(1.2247448-.7071068) = .2588190$, and cosine 15° $= \frac{1}{2}(1.2247448 + .7071068) = .9659258$,

7. After the table of sines has been constructed, the formula $s+c = \sqrt{(1+S)}$ and $c-s = \sqrt{(1-S)}$ may serve for the extraction of square roots. Suppose it were required to compute the square root of 40. This may be done either by ascending from the squares of 5 or 6, or by descending from the squares of 7 or 8; the former being greater than the half of 40, and the latter being less than its double. For $40 = 25+15$, and $\sqrt{40} = 5\sqrt{(1+.6)}$; but .6 is the sine of 36° 52′ 11.63″; and the sine and cosine of the half of this, or 18° 26′ 581″ are .3062278 and .9486834, whose sum, or 1.2649111, being multiplied by 5, gives 6.3245553, the square root of 40. Or $40 = 64-24$, and $\sqrt{40} = 8\sqrt{)(1-.375)}$; now .375 is the sine of 22° 1′ 31.98″, and the sine and cosine of its half, or 11° 0′15″.99, are .1976424 and .98852118, whose difference, or .7905694 being multiplied as before by 8, gives 6.3245553.

The same result is obtained from art. 16; for C denoting the cosine of a double arc, $s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(1-C)}$; but $40 = 100.\frac{1}{2}(1-.2)$, and $\sqrt{40} = (10\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(1-.2)})$; now .2 is the cosine of 78° 27′ 46.95″, the half of which is 39° 13′ 53.47″, whose sine, .6324555 multiplied by 10, gives the square root of 40.

In like manner, by art. 17. $c = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(1+C)})$, and $\frac{1}{4}\sqrt{40} = s\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(1+.25.)})$ But .25 is the cosine of an arc 75° 31′ 20.94″; and the cosine of the half of the half of this, or 37° 45′ 40.47″,

[illegible]

[illegible] the expansion of [illegible] to the development of $(1+x)^n$. But [illegible] the form,
$1 + Ax + Bx^2 + Cx^3 +$ &c.; and the only difficulty is to discover the [illegible] coefficients A, B, C. &c. But these coefficients are readily found in the case where n is an integral

number; for since they must be independent of the value of x, assume the binomial $1+1$, and involve its powers by repeated multiplication. The result of this procedure will give the series of coefficients corresponding to the indices 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. Now, it is obvious, from the mode of multiplication carried to the right hand, that each vertical rank is composed by adding every term in succession to the adjacent term of the preceding column.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} 1 & 1,\ 1. \\ 2 & 1,\ 2,\ 1. \\ 3 & 1,\ 3,\ 3,\ 1. \\ 4 & 1,\ 4,\ 6,\ 4,\ 1. \\ 5 & 1,\ 5,\ 10,\ 10,\ 5,\ 1. \end{array}$$

Thus, in the third row, $1=1+0$, $3=2+1$, $6=3+3$, $10=4+6$ &c.; and in the fourth row, $1=1+0$, $4=3+1$, $10=6+4$ &c.

By retracing this operation, the coefficients are also discovered which belong to the indices, that from analogical extension become affected by the subtractive sign. Thus, the terms -1, $+1$, -1 &c. of the horizontal range opposite to -1, are found by subtracting them in succession from the zeros which are the advanced terms of the range immediately below.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} -4 & 1,\ -4,\ +10,\ -20\ \&c. \\ -3 & 1,\ -3,\ +6,\ -10\ \&c. \\ -2 & 1,\ -2,\ +3,\ -4\ \&c. \\ -1 & 1,\ -1,\ +1,\ -1\ \&c. \\ 0 & 1,\ 0,\ 0,\ 0,\ 0,\ \&c. \\ 1 & 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ \&c. \end{array}$$

Again, the terms -2, $+3$, -4 of the next range above, are obtained by subtracting 1 from -1, -2 from $+1$, $+3$ from -1 &c. And, in like manner, opposite to -3, stand -3, $+6$, -10, which result from subtracting 1 from -2, -3 from $+3$, $+6$ from -4, &c.

It is remarkable, that these horizontal ranges exhibit the same numbers, only with alternating signs, as the vertical columns in the former tables. The application of both sets of numbers is abundantly simple, and exhibits, whenever n is integral, the involution of $(1+x)^n$, and of $(1+x)^{-n}$, or $\frac{1}{(1+x)^n}$, which includes also a compound division.

But to discover the coefficients in all cases, whether n be whole or fractional, since $(1+x)^n=1+Ax+Bx^2+Cx^3$ &c., let both sides of the equation be multiplied by $1+x$, and

$$\begin{aligned}(1+x)^{n+1} = 1 &+ Ax + Bx^2 + Cx^3\ \&c. \\ &+ x + Ax^2 + Bx^3\ \&c.\end{aligned}$$

Wherefore, when the index n passes into $n+1$, the successive coefficients A, B, C, &c. must pass into $A+1$, $B+A$, $C+B$, &c. These coefficients being derived from n, such is the condition which should determine their function or peculiar relation. In order to limit the investigation, it may be observed, that when n becomes nothing, the coefficients all disappear, and, therefore, no constant quantity can enter into the function. It is only further to be remarked, that the several coefficients A, B, C, &c., being obviously formed from each other, must belong to successive orders of functions.

Let A, therefore, which is simply of the first order, be denoted by $n\alpha$, and $A+1$ must be expressed by $(n+1)\alpha$; whence $1=\alpha$, and $A=n$.

Again, since B is of the second order, put $B=n^2\alpha+n\beta$, and $B+A=B+n=(n+1)^2\alpha+(n+1)\beta$; consequently, by subtracting these equations,

$$\begin{aligned} n=2n\alpha&+\alpha. \\ &+\beta. \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the corresponding terms, $n=2n\alpha$, and $\frac{1}{2}=\alpha$; but $\alpha=\beta=o$, and, consequently, $\frac{1}{2}+\beta=o$, or $\beta=-\frac{1}{2}$. Wherefore, $B=\frac{n^2}{2}-\frac{n}{2}=n.\frac{n-1}{2}$.

Lastly, C being a function of the third order, let $C=n^3\alpha+n^2\beta+n\gamma$: It follows, that $C+B=(n+1)^3\alpha+(n+1)^2\beta+(n+1)\gamma$, and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n^2}{2}-\frac{n}{2}=3n^2\alpha&+3n\alpha+\alpha \\ &+2n\beta+\beta \\ &+\gamma. \end{aligned}$$

Equating now the homologous terms, $\frac{n^2}{2}=3n^2\alpha$, $-\frac{n}{2}=3n\alpha+2n\beta$, and $\alpha+\beta+\gamma=o$; whence $\frac{1}{6}=\alpha$, $-1=1+4\beta$, or $\beta=-\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{2}+\beta=o$, or $\beta=\frac{1}{3}$. Consequently, $C=\frac{n^3}{6}-\frac{n^2}{2}+\frac{n}{3}=n\left(\frac{n^2-3n+2}{6}\right)=n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}$.

Collecting, therefore, the several results, we obtain $(1+x)^n=1+n.x+n.\frac{n-1}{2}.x^2 n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}x^3$ &c. The law of

extension is evident, whatever may be the character or value of n.

10. The expressions for multiple sines and tangents will furnish an easy solution of some forms of equations. Thus, for quadratics, let t denote the tangent of any arc, and T the tangent of double that arc; then $T = \frac{2t}{1-t^2}$, or putting $t = \frac{x}{m}$, $T = \frac{2mx}{m^2-x^2}$; whence $Tx^2 + 2mx = Tm^2$, and $x^2 + \frac{2m}{T}x = m^2$. Now compare this with the general equation, $x^2 + ax = b^2$, and $m^2 = b^2$, or $m = b$, and, therefore, $\frac{2b}{T} = a$, or $T = \frac{2b}{a} = \frac{b}{\frac{1}{2}a}$; consequently the arc is found which has T for its tangent, and hence t the tangent of half that arc is obtained, and the root $x = b.t$. Suppose it were required to solve the quadratic, $x^2+6x=16$. Here $T=\frac{8}{6}$, and the corresponding arc is 53° 7′ 48.38″, or 233° 7′ 48.38″; the half of which is 26° 33′ 54.19″, or 116° 33′ 54.19″, and the tangent of this bisection is .5, or —2, the latter being only the cotangent of the same arc; whence the roots or $4.t$ are +2 and —8. Again, let the equation $x^2-5x=24$ be proposed: In this case, $b = \sqrt{24} = 4.8989795$, and $a = -5$; whence $T = -1.9595918$, which corresponds to the arc —62° 57′ 51.51″ or +117° 2′ 8.49″, and the half of this arc is —31° 28′ 55.75″ or +58° 31′ 4.25″. Wherefore $t = -.6123724$ or $+1.6339931$, and consequently $x = -3$ or $+8$.

It is evident that these formulæ will answer only when the third term b^2 is additive. If it be subtractive, the properties of multiple cosines may be applied.

Let the quadratic $x^2-ax=-b^2$ be proposed for solution. By substituting $y+\frac{a}{2}=x$, the second term will be removed, and the equation transformed into $y^2=\frac{a^2}{4}-b^2$. But c and C denoting the cosine of an arc and of its double, it follows that $C = 2c^2-1$

put $c=\frac{y}{m}$, and the formula will pass into $C=\frac{2y^2}{m^2}-1$; whence $Cm^2=2y^2-m^2$ or $y^2=+\frac{m^2}{2}+C\frac{m^2}{2}$. Compare this with the general equation $y^2=\frac{a^2}{4}-b^2$, and $\frac{m^2}{2}=\frac{a}{4}$, or $m=a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$; but $\frac{Cm^2}{2}=b^2$, and therefore $C=-\frac{b^2}{\frac{1}{4}a^2}=-\left(\frac{b}{\frac{1}{2}a}\right)^2$; but $c=\frac{y}{m}$ and $y=mc=c.\,a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$; whence $x=c.a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}+\frac{1}{2}a$.

Suppose it were required to solve the equation $x^2-10x=-16$. Here $b=4$ and $a=10$; consequently $C=-\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^2=-\frac{16}{25}=-.64$, which is the cosine of the arcs $129°47'30.55''$ and $230°12'29.45''$; wherefore the halves of these arcs are $64°53'45.27''$ and $115°6'14.73''$, of which the cosine c is $+.4240037$ and $-.4240037$. But $a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}=7.0710678$, and $c.a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}=+3$ and -3, whence $x=+3+5=+8$, and $=-3+5=+2$; both of which additive roots will answer.

It is evident that this method will fail, if the third term should exceed the square of half the second; the very case where the formulæ with tangents apply.

11. The expression for the sine of a triple arc gives a ready solution of certain cases of cubic equations. By excluding the second term, but preserving the same dimensions, such equations will be reduced to the form $x^3\pm a^2x=b^3$. Now let s and S represent the sines of an arc and of its triple, and $S=3s-4s^3$; put $s=\frac{x}{m}$, and the expression will be $S=\frac{3x}{m}-\frac{4x^3}{m^3}$, whence $Sm^3=3m^2x-4x^3$, and finally $x^3-\frac{3m^2}{4}.x=-S.\frac{m^3}{4}$.

This equation can be assimilated only to the modified form $x^3-a^2x=b^3$; wherefore, by comparison, $\frac{3m^2}{4}=a^2$, and $S.\frac{m^3}{4}=-b^3$; consequently $m=a\sqrt{\frac{4}{3}}$, and $S=-\frac{b^3}{a\sqrt{\frac{4}{27}}}=-\frac{\frac{1}{2}b^3}{\sqrt{(\frac{1}{3}a^2)^3}}$. Thus, the arc corresponding to the sine S is

found, and thence s the sine of its third part; but $x = s.m = s.2\sqrt{\frac{4a^2}{3}}$.

As an example, suppose $x^3 - 129x = -520$: Here S being equal to $\frac{260}{\sqrt{(43)^3}}$, the arcs to which that sine belongs are $67° 19' 57.74''$, with the successive addition of a whole circumference. Wherefore those arcs being trisected, give $22° 24' 39.25''$, $142° 24' 39.25''$, and $262° 24' 39.25''$; and multiplying the corresponding sines into $2\sqrt{43}$, we obtain, for the roots of the equation, $+5$, $+8$ and -13.

As another example, assume $x^3 - 61\,x = +180$. Here $S = -\frac{90}{\sqrt{(20\frac{1}{3})^3}} = -\sqrt{\frac{8100}{8360\frac{16}{27}}}$ to which the corresponding arc is $-78° 59' 18.78''$; the trisection of this again produces the successive arcs, $-26° 19' 46.26''$, $+93° 40' 13.74''$, and $+213° 40' 13.74''$; the sines being multiplied by $2\sqrt{20\frac{1}{3}}$ give -4, $+9$ and -5, for the roots of the equation.

It is obvious, that this method is applicable only when the square of half the third term does not exceed the cube of the third of the second term; which constitutes what is called the irreducible case in cubics, or that wherein Cardan's theorem fails. The three roots thus evolved are, consequently, proportional to the perpendiculars let fall from the angular points of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle. But the two perpendiculars on the one side are together equal to the single perpendicular on the other; a property which coincides with the known condition of equations that want the second term, the sum of their additive roots being equal to that of their subtractive roots.

Suppose the cubic $x^3 - 48x = 128$. In this case, the square of $\frac{128}{2}$ or 64 being equal to the cube $\frac{48}{3}$ or of 16, the resulting arc is $90°$, and its trisection gives the arcs $30°$, $150°$, and $270°$, of which the sines are $+.5$, $+.5$ and -1; wherefore, multiplying these into $2\sqrt{16}$, or 8, we derive the equal roots

$+4$ and $+4$, and an opposite root -8. Hence, in this case, the equation has strictly only two roots.

Let the imperfect equation $x^3-37x=o$ be proposed. Here the resulting arc vanishes, but the trisection still gives the two arcs 120° and 240°, the sines of which are opposite, being equal to $+\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$ and $-\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$. The products of these fractions by $2\sqrt{12}$, are $+6$ and -6. But the equation was reducible to the quadratic $x^2-36=o$, where $x=\sqrt{36}=+6$ or -6.

12. On examining the formation of the successive terms of the first and second tables, it will appear that the coefficients are certain multiples of the powers of 2, whose exponents likewise at every step decrease by two. It is farther manifest, that if 1, A, B, C, &c. 1, A′, B′, C′, &c. and 1, A‵, B‵, C‵, &c. denote the multiples corresponding to the arcs $n.a$, $n+1.a$, and $n-1.a$; then $A+1=A'$, $B+A'=B'$, $C+B'=C'$, &c. Whence the values of A, B, C, &c. are determined, either by the method of finite differences, adopting the appropriate notation, or from the theory of functions. Thus, in the first table, $\Delta A=1$, and $A=n-2$; $\Delta B=A'=n-3$, and $B=\frac{n-3.n-4}{2}$; $\Delta C=B'=\frac{n-4.n-5}{2}$, and $C=\frac{n-4.n-5.n-6}{2.3}$. Wherefore, in general,

$$(1.)\ Sin\ na=2^{n-1}.c^{n-1}s-\frac{n-2}{1}.2^{n-3}c^{n-3}s+\frac{n-3.n-4}{2}.2^{n-5}c^{n-5}s-\frac{n-4.n-5.n-6}{2.3}2^{n-7}c^{n-7}s+\ \&c.$$

$$(2.)\ Cos\ na=2^{n-1}.c^{n}-n.2^{n-3}.c^{n-2}+\frac{n.n-3}{2}.2^{n-5}c^{n-4}-\frac{n.n-4.n-5}{2.3}.2^{n-7}.c^{n-6}+\ \&c.$$

The third and fourth tables are evidently formed by multiplying constantly by $2cos\ 2a$ or $2-4s^2$, and subtracting the term preceding; or the multiplication by $4s^2$ produces the second differences of the successive quantities. Hence in the former, $\Delta\Delta A=4n''$, $\Delta\Delta B=4A''$, &c.

wherefore $\Delta A=n+1.n+1$, and $A=\frac{n-1.n+1}{2.3}$;

$\Delta B=\Sigma\left(\frac{2.n+2.n+1.n+3}{3}\right)=\frac{n+1.n+1.n-1.n+3}{3.4}$,

and $B=\frac{n.n-1.n+1.n-3.n+3}{2.3.4.5}$. But in the fourth table, $\Delta\Delta A=4$, $\Delta\Delta B=4A''$, $\Delta\Delta C'=4B''$; and consequently $\Delta A=2n+2$, and $A=\frac{n^2}{2}$; $\Delta B=\Sigma(2.n+2.n+2)=\frac{n.n+1.n+2}{3}$, and $B=\frac{n^2.n-2.n+2}{2.3.4}$. Wherefore, in general,

$$(3.)\ Sin\ na=n.s-n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}s^3+n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}s^5-n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}.\frac{n^2-25}{6.7}s^7+\ \&c.$$

$$(4.)\ Cos\ na=1-\frac{n^2}{2}s^2+\frac{n^2}{2}.\frac{n^2-4}{3.4}s^4-\frac{n^2}{2}.\frac{n^2-4}{3.4}.\frac{n^2-16}{5.6}s^6+,\ \&c.$$

In the fifth and sixth tables, the coefficients are evidently the same as those of the power of a binomial, only proceeding from both extremes to the middle terms. Hence, according as n is odd or even,

$$(5.)\ 2^{n-1}\ sin\ a^n=\pm sin\ na\mp n.sin(n-2)a\pm n.\frac{n-1}{2}sin(n-4)a\mp n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}sin\ (n-6)a\pm\&c.;\ \text{and}$$

$$2^{n-1}\ sin\ a^n=\pm cos\ na\mp n.cos(n-2)a\pm n.\frac{n-1}{2}cos(n-4)a\mp n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}cos(n-6)a,\ \&c.$$

Again,

$$(6.)\ 2^{n-1}\ cos\ a^n=cos\ na+n.cos(n-2)a+n.\frac{n-1}{2}.cos(n-4a)+n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}.cos(n-6)a,\ \&c.$$

In these three expressions, half the last term, which corresponds to the middle in the expansion of the binomial, is to be taken, when n is an even number.

13. It will be satisfactory likewise to subjoin an investigation

of the sine of the multiple arc, as derived from the Theory of Functions.

It appears from inspecting the successive formation of the sines of the multiple arcs, 1. that the odd powers only of s occur; 2. that the coefficient of the first term is only n, and the other coefficients are its functions of third, fifth, &c. orders; and 3. that since, in the case when $n=1$, the rest of the coefficients evidently vanish, those coefficients in general, as affected by opposite signs, must in each term produce a mutual balance.

Let therefore $sin\ na = \overset{\prime}{n}.s + \overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}.s^3 + \overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{n}.s^5$ &c.; where s denotes the sine of the arc a, and $\overset{\prime}{n}$, $\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}$, $\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{n}$, &c. the successive odd orders of the functions of n. It is evident, from (Prop. 3. cor. 2. Trig.) that, by substitution,

$$\left(\overset{\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime}{(n-1)}\right)s+\left(\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n-1)}\right)s^3+\left(\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{(n-1)}\right)s$$

$$+\&c. = 2\sqrt{(1-s^2)}sin\ na = (2-s^2-\tfrac{1}{4}s^4, \&c.)(\overset{\prime}{n}s+\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}s^3+\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{n}s^5, \&c.)$$

$=2\overset{\prime}{n}s+(2\overset{\prime}{n}-n)s^3+)2\overset{\prime\prime}{n}-\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}-\frac{1}{4}\overset{\prime}{n})s^5$, &c. Now, equating corresponding terms, and rejecting the powers of s, we obtain these general results:

$$2n'=2n';\ \overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}=2\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}-\overset{\prime}{n};\ \overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{(n-1)}=2\overset{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}{n}-\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}-\tfrac{1}{4}\overset{\prime}{n}.$$

It remains hence to discover the several orders of the functions of n.

1. The equation $2n'=2n'$ contains a mere identical proposition; but other considerations indicate that n must always denote the first term, or that the first function of n is n itself.

2. The equation $\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n+1)}+\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{(n-1)}=2\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}-\overset{\prime}{n}$ fixes the conditions of the third function of n, which, from the nature of the relation, is obviously imperfect, and wants the second term. Put therefore, $n''' = \alpha n^3+\beta n$; and, by substitution, $2\alpha n^3+6\alpha n+2\beta n=2\alpha n^3+2\beta n-n$. Equating now the corresponding terms, and $6\alpha=-1$, or $\alpha=-\frac{1}{6}$; but $\alpha+\beta=0$, and therefore $\beta+\frac{1}{6}$. Whence $\overset{\prime\prime\prime}{n}=-\frac{1}{6}n^3+\frac{1}{6}n=-n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}$.

3. Again, in the third equation, $(n+1)^{'''''}+(n-1)^{'''''}=2n^{''''}-n^{'''}-\frac{1}{4}n^{'}$, substitute $n^{'''''}=\alpha n^5+\beta n^3+\gamma n$, and the conditions of the fifth order of the function of n will be determined by this compound expression: $2\alpha n^5+(20\alpha+2\beta)n^3+(10\alpha+6\beta+2\gamma)n=2\alpha n^5+(2\beta+\frac{1}{6})n^3+(2\gamma-\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{4})n$. Equate the corresponding terms, and $20\alpha+2\beta=2\beta+\frac{1}{6}$, or $\alpha=\frac{1}{120}=\frac{1}{2.3.4.5}$. In like manner, $10\alpha+6\beta+2\gamma=2\gamma-\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{4}$, and $\beta=-\frac{1}{72}-\frac{1}{36}-\frac{1}{24}=-\frac{1}{12}=\frac{-10}{2.3.4.5}$; but $\alpha+\beta+\gamma=0$, whence $\gamma=\frac{9}{2.3.4.5}$ . . . . . .

Collectively, therefore, $n^{'''''}=\frac{n^5-10n^3+9n}{2.3.4.5}=n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-1}{4.5}$.

Whence, resuming all the terms, $\sin na=ns-n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}s^3+n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}s^5$ —&c. as before.

14. From the expression for the sine of a multiple arc, may be deduced the series for the sine of any arc, in terms of the arc itself, and conversely. Let $na=A$, and therefore $a=\frac{A}{n}$; if n be supposed indefinitely great, then a must be indefinitely small, and consequently in a ratio of equality to s. Whence, substituting A for na, and $\frac{A}{n}$ for s in the general expression, there results, $\sin A=A-\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}\frac{A^3}{n^2}+\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}\frac{A^5}{n^4}$—&c.

But n being indefinitely great, the composite fractions $\frac{n^2-1}{n^2}$, $\frac{n^2-9}{n^2}$, &c. are each in effect equal to unit, which forms their extreme limit. Consequently, assuming that modification, $\sin A=A-\frac{A^3}{2.3}+\frac{A^5}{2.3.4.5}$—, &c.

Again, putting $a=\mathrm{A}$ and $s=\mathrm{S}$, suppose n to be indefinitely small, and $sin\ na=na=n\mathrm{A}$; whence, by substitution,

$$n\mathrm{A}=n\mathrm{S}-n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}\mathrm{S}^3+n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}\mathrm{S}^5-,\ \&c. \text{ and}$$

$$\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{S}-\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}\mathrm{S}^3+n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}\mathrm{S}^5-\&c.$$

But if n vanish from all the terms, the series will pass into a simpler form.

$$\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{S}^3+\frac{1}{2.3}\mathrm{S}^3+\frac{1.9}{2.3.4.5}\mathrm{S}^5+\frac{1.9.25}{2.3.4.5.6.7}\mathrm{S}^7+,\ \&c.$$

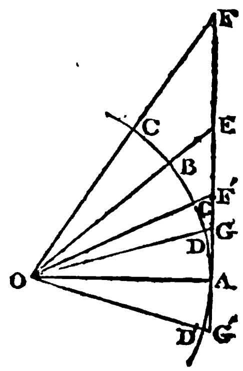
By a similar investigation, the series for the cosine of an arc is likewise found.

$$Cos\mathrm{A}=1-\frac{\mathrm{A}^2}{1.2}+\frac{\mathrm{A}^4}{2.3.4}-\frac{\mathrm{A}^6}{2.3.4.5.6}+.\ \&c.$$

These series' are very commodious for the calculation of sines, since they converge with sufficient rapidity when the arc is not a large portion of the quadrant. Though the method explained in the text is on the whole much simpler, yet as the errors of computation are thereby unavoidably accumulated, it would be proper at intervals to calculate certain of the sines by an independent process.

15. The series' now given furnish also various modes for the rectification of the circle. Thus, assuming an arc equal to the radius, its sine is, $1-\frac{1}{2.3}+\frac{1}{2.3.4.5}-\&c.\ =.841471$, and its cosine is, $1-\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2.3.4}-\&c.=440302$. But that arc evidently approaches to 60°, of which the sine is $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}=.866025$, and the cosine .500000. Wherefore (Pr. 1. Trig.) the sine of the difference of these two arcs is $.866025\times.540302-$ $.841471\times.500000=.04718$, and consequently, by the series, that interval itself is .0472. Hence the length of the arc of 60° is 1.0472, and the circumference of a circle which has unit for its diameter is $3\times1.0472=3.1416$; an approximation extremely convenient.

16. *The Fifth Proposition may be otherwise demonstrated from the corollaries at p. 364.*



Let AB and BC, or BC′, be two arcs, of which AB is the greater; make AD, or AD′, equal to BC, and apply the respective tangents. Because OAE is a right-angled triangle, and OG′, OF, are drawn, making equal angles with OA and OE, it follows, that OA^2—AE.AG′ : OA^2 : : EG′ : AF, and consequently R^2—*tan* AB. *tan* BC : R^2 : : *tan*AB + *tan* BC : *tan* (AB+BC). Again, since OG and OF′ make equal angles with OA and OE, it is evident that OA^2+AE.AG : OA^2 : : EG : AF′, and hence R^2+*tan*AB*tan*BC : R^2 : : *tan* AB—*tan*BC : *tan*(AB—BC).

17. The radius being expressed by unit, the sum of the tangents of the angles of any triangle is equal to the number arising from their continued product. For, let A, B, and C, denote the several angles of the triangle; and since two of these, such as A and B, are supplementary to the remaining one C, the tangent of A+B is the same (schol. def. Trig.) as that of the third angle in an opposite direction. Whence $\frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B} = -\tan C$, and therefore $\tan A + \tan B = -\tan C + \tan A \tan B \tan C$, or $\tan A + \tan B + \tan C = \tan A \tan B \tan C$.

18. The properties of the tangents are easily derived from those of the sines,

1. $Tan A + \tan B = \frac{\sin A}{\cos A} + \frac{\sin B}{\cos B} = \frac{\sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B} =$

(art. 1. NO. 3.) $\frac{\sin(A+B)}{\cos A \cos B}$.

2. Change the sign of B in the last article, and $tan A - tan B = \frac{sin(A-B)}{cos A cos B}$.

3. Instead of A and B in art. 1. substitute their complements, and $cot A + cot B = \frac{sin(A+B)}{sin A sin B}$.

4. Make the same substitution in art. 2, and $cot B - cot A = \frac{sin(A-B)}{sin A sin B}$.

5. $Tan(A+B) = \frac{sin(A+B)}{cos A+B}$ = (art. 1. and 4, NO. 3.) $\frac{sin A cos B + cos A sin B}{cos A cos B - sin A sin B}$, which, being divided by $cos A cos B$ or $sin A sin B$, gives $tan(A+B) = \frac{tan A + tan B}{1 - tan A tan B} = \frac{cot B + cot A}{cot B cot A - 1}$.

6. Change the sign of B in the last article, and $tan(A-B) = \frac{tan A - tan B}{1 + tan A tan B} = \frac{cot B - cot A}{cot B cot A + 1}$.

7. Divide the expression in the first article by that in the second, and $\frac{sin(A+B)}{sin(A-B)} = \frac{tan A + tan B}{tan A - tan B} = \frac{cot B + cot A}{cot B - cot A}$.

8. In the last article, change the sign of B, and instead of A take its complement, and $\frac{cos(A+B)}{cos(A-B)} = \frac{cot B - tan A}{cot B + tan B} = \frac{cot A - tan B}{cot A + tan B}$.

9. Divide the expression of art. 12. NO. 3. by that of art. 5., and $\frac{1 - cos 2A}{sin 2A} = \frac{2 sin A^2}{2 sin A cos A} = \frac{sin A}{cos A} = tan A$.

10. Divide the expression of art. 5. in the same number, by that of art. 13. and $\frac{sin 2A}{1 + cos 2A} = \frac{2 sin A cos A}{2 cos A^2} = \frac{sin A}{cos A} = tan A$.

11. Multiply the expressions of the two preceding articles, and $\frac{1 - cos 2A}{1 + cos 2A} = tan A^2$, or $tan A = \sqrt{\frac{1 - cos 2A}{1 + cos 2A}}$.

12. Decompose the expression in art. 9., and $tan A = \frac{1}{sin 2A} - \frac{cos 2A}{sin 2A} = cosec 2A - cot 2A$.

13. In the last article, change A into its complement, and $\cot A = \operatorname{cosec} 2A + \cot 2A$.

14. Subtract the last expression from the one preceding it, and $\tan A - \cot A = -2\cot 2A$, or $\tan A = \cot A - 2\cot 2A$.

15. In art. 9, 10, and 11, for 2A and A, take A and $\frac{1}{2}A$, and $\tan\frac{1}{2}A = \frac{1-\cos A}{\sin A} = \frac{\sin A}{1+\cos A} = \sqrt{\frac{1-\cos A}{1+\cos A}}$.

16. Multiply the expressions of art. 1. and 2., and $(\tan A + \tan B)$ $(\tan A - \tan B) = \tan A^2 - \tan B^2 = \frac{\sin(A+B)\ (\sin A - B)}{\cos A^2 \cos B^2}$.

17. Multiply the expressions of art 3. and 4., and $(\cot B + \cot A)$ $(\cot B - \cot A) = \cot B^2 - \cot A^2 = \frac{\sin(A-B)\ \sin(A+B)}{\sin A^2 \sin B^2}$.

18. Divide art. 28. of NO. 3. by art. 29., and $\frac{\sin A + \sin B}{\sin A - \sin B} =$
$\frac{2\sin\frac{1}{2}(A+B)\ \cos\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2\cos\frac{1}{2}(A+B)\ \sin\frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}$.

19. Divide art. 30. of the same NO. by art. 31., and
$\frac{\cos B + \cos A}{\cos B - \cos A} = \frac{2\cos\frac{1}{2}(A+B)\ \cos\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2\sin\frac{1}{2}(A+B)\ \sin\frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\cot\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}$.

19. From art. 14., the reciprocal of an arc may easily be denoted by a series: For since $\cot A - 2\cot 2A = \tan A$, if the arc A and its compound expression were continually bisected, there would arise:

$$\tfrac{1}{2}\cot\tfrac{1}{2}A - \cot A = \tfrac{1}{2}\tan\tfrac{1}{2}A$$
$$\tfrac{1}{4}\cot\tfrac{1}{4}A - \tfrac{1}{2}\cot\tfrac{1}{2}A = \tfrac{1}{4}\tan\tfrac{1}{4}A$$
$$\tfrac{1}{8}\cot\tfrac{1}{8}A - \tfrac{1}{4}\cot\tfrac{1}{4}A = \tfrac{1}{8}\tan\tfrac{1}{8}A$$

&c. &c. &c.

Wherefore, collecting these successive terms, and observing the effects of the opposite signs, the general result will come out,

$$\frac{1}{2^n}\cot\frac{A}{2^n} - \cot A = \tfrac{1}{2}\tan\tfrac{1}{2}A + \tfrac{1}{4}\tan\tfrac{1}{4}A + \tfrac{1}{8}\tan\tfrac{1}{8}A \ldots + \frac{1}{2^n}\tan\frac{A}{2^n}.$$

If n be supposed to become indefinitely large, then

$$\frac{1}{2^n}\cdot\cot\frac{A}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^n}\cdot\frac{1}{\tan\frac{A}{2^n}} \text{ is ultimately } \frac{1}{2^n}\cdot\frac{1}{\frac{A}{2^n}} = \frac{2^n}{2^n}\cdot\frac{1}{A} \text{ or } \frac{1}{A};$$

and consequently

$$\frac{1}{A} = \cot A + \tfrac{1}{2}\tan\tfrac{1}{2}A + \tfrac{1}{4}\tan\tfrac{1}{4}A + \tfrac{1}{8}\tan\tfrac{1}{8}A + \tfrac{1}{16}\tan\tfrac{1}{16}A + \&c.$$

This expression, however, is more curious than useful.

20. It is obvious that the terms of the series for the tangent of the multiple arc are formed out of the coefficients of the powers of a binomial. Wherefore,

$$(7.)\ Tan\ na = \frac{nt - n\cdot\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}t^3 + \&c.}{1 - n\cdot\frac{n-1}{2}t^2 + n\cdot\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{n-3}{4}t^4 - \&c.}$$

Hence also,

$$(8.)\ Sin\ na = c^n\left(nt - n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}t^3 + n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{n-3}{4}\cdot\frac{n-4}{5}t^5\right.$$
$$\left. - \&c.\right)\ \text{and}$$

$$(9.)\ Cos\ na = c^n\left(1 - n\right).\frac{n-1}{2}t^2 + n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{n-3}{4}t^4 -$$
$$n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{n-3}{4}\cdot\frac{n-4}{5}\cdot\frac{n-5}{6}t^6 - \&c.)$$

21. The series for the tangent in terms of the arc, is easily derived, by the theory of functions, from the expression of the tangent of the double arc. Since $tan 2a = \frac{2t}{1-t^2} = 2t + 2t^3 + 2t^5 + \&c.$ Put $t = a + Aa^3 + Ba^5 + \&c.$, and by substitution, $tan 2a = 2a + 8Aa^3 + 32Ba^5 + \&c. = 2a + (2A+2)a^3 + (2B + 6A + 2)a^5 +$, &c. Equating, therefore, the corresponding terms, we obtain, $8A = 2A + 2$, or $A = \frac{1}{3}$, and $32B = 2B + 6A + 2$, or $30B = 4$, and $B = \frac{2}{15}$. Whence, in general, $tan\ a = a + \frac{1}{3}a^3 + \frac{2}{15}a^5$, &c. Again, revert this series, and $a = t - \frac{1}{3}t^3 + \frac{1}{5}t^5 - \frac{1}{7}t^7 + \&c.$

But the same conclusion is attained more directly from the general expression for the multiple tangents. Let $na = A$ and $tan\ na = T$; then $\frac{A}{n} = t$, and if n be supposed indefinitely *great*, this elemental arc a will become equal to its tangent t. Wherefore,

$$T = \frac{n.\frac{A}{n} - n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{A^3}{n^3} - \&c.}{1 - n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{A^2}{n^2} + n.\frac{n-1}{2}\cdot\frac{n-2}{3}\cdot\frac{n-3}{4}\cdot\frac{A^4}{n^4} - \&c.};$$

and ultimately $T = \frac{A - \frac{1}{6}A^3 + \&c.}{1 - \frac{1}{2}A^2 + \frac{1}{24}A^4 - \&c.}$

Whence by division $T = A + \frac{1}{3}A^3 + \frac{2}{15}A^5 + \&c.$, and by reversion $A = T - \frac{1}{3}T^3 + \frac{1}{5}T^5 - \&c.$

The last series affords the most expeditious mode for the rectification of the circle. Assume an arc a, whose tangent t is one-fifth part of the radius, and $tan\ 4a = \frac{4t - 4t^3}{1 - 6t^2 + t^4} = \frac{120}{119}$; consequently (Prop. 5. Trig.) $tan\ (4a - 45°) = \frac{1}{239} =$ .004,184,100,418. Wherefore, computing the terms of the series, $a =$ .197,395,559,850, and $4a =$ .789,582,239,400. In like manner, we find $4a - 45° =$ .004,184,076,000, and hence the difference between these values, or .785,398,1634 exhibits the length of the octant; which number, multiplied by 4, gives 3,1415926536, for the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 1.

22. Proposition sixth, with its corollaries, would furnish a simple quadrature of the circle. The sine of a semiarc being equal to half the chord, it follows that the ratio of an arc to its chord is compounded of the successive ratios of the radius to the cosines of the continued bisections of half that arc. Assuming therefore the arc of 60°, whose chord is equal to the radius, the logarithm of the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter will be thus computed:

Arith. comp. log. *Cos* 15°	=	.0150562219
———————— *Cos* 7° 30′	=	.0037314339
———————— *Cos* 3° 45′	=	.0009308547
———————— *Cos* 1° 52′ 30″	=	.0002325891
———————— *Cos* 0° 56′ 15″	=	.0000581395
———————— *Cos* 0° 28′ 7½″	=	.0000145344
One-third of the last term,	=	.0000048448
Logarithm of 3	=	.4771212547
		.4971493730, which

exceeds only by 3, in the last place, the logarithm of 3,141592654. As the successive terms come to form very nearly a progression that descends by quotients of 4, the third of the last one is, for the reason stated in page 245, considered as equal to the result of their continued addition.

23. An elegant mode of forming the approximate sines corresponding to any division of the quadrant, may be derived from the principles stated in the calculation of trigonometrical lines: For the successive differences of the sines for the arcs A — B, A, and A + B, are *sin*A — *sin* (A — B), and *sin* (A + B) — *sin* A; and consequently the difference between these again, or the second difference of the sines, is *sin*(A + B) + *sin* (A — B) — 2*sin* A = (Prop. 3. cor. 3. Trig.) —2*vers*B.*sin*A. The second differences of the progressive sines are hence subtractive, and always proportional to the sines themselves. Wherefore the sines may be deduced from their second differences, by reversing the usual process, and recompounding their separate elements. Thus, the sines of A—B and A being already known, their second and descending difference, as it is thus derived from the sine of A, will combine to form the succeeding sine of A+B, which is—2*vers*B*sin*A+ (*sin*A—*sin*(A—B)) + *sin*A. It only remains then, to determine, in any trigonometrical system, the constant multiplier of the sine, or twice the versed sine of the component arc. Suppose the quadrant to be divided into 24 equal parts, each containing 3° 45′ or 225′. The length of this arc is nearly $\frac{22}{7}.\frac{1}{48}=\frac{11}{168}$, and consequently twice its versed sine = $(\frac{11}{168})^2=(\frac{1}{233})$ in approximate terms. If the successive sines, corresponding to the division of the quadrant into 24 equal parts, be therefore continually multiplied by the fraction $\frac{1}{233}$, or divided by the number 233, the quotients thence arising will represent their second differences. But, since 233 is nearly equal to 225, or the length in minutes of the primary or component arc, and which differs not sensibly from its sine,—this last may be assumed as the divisor, the small aberration so produced being corrected by deferring the integral quotients. In this way the following Table is constructed.

Parts of the quadrant.	Arcs.	Sines.	1st Diff.	2d Diff.	Arcs.
1	225′	225	224	1	3° 45′
2	450	449	222	2	7 30
3	675	671	219	3	11 15
4	900	890	215	4	15 0
5	1125	1105	210	5	18 45
6	1350	1315	205	* 5	22 30
7	1575	1520	199	6	26 15
8	1800	1719	191	* 7	30 0
9	2025	1910	183	8	33 45
10	2250	2093	174	9	37 30
11	2475	2267	164	10	41 15
12	2700	2431	154	* 10	45 0
13	2925	2585	143	11	48 45
14	3150	2728	131	12	52 30
15	3375	2859	119	* 12	56 15
16	3600	2978	106	13	60 0
17	3825	3084	93	13	63 45
18	4050	3177	79	14	67 30
19	4275	3256	65	14	71 15
20	4500	3321	51	14	75 0
21	4725	3372	37	* 14	78 45
22	4950	3409	22	15	82 30
23	5175	3431	7	15	86 15
24	5400	3438	0	15	90 0

It will be seen that the number 225, which expresses the length of the component arc, and therefore represents very nearly its sine, is here employed as the constant divisor. Thus, 225, divided by 225, gives a quotient 1; and this, subtracted from 225, leaves 224, which, being joined to 225, forms 449, the sine of the second arc. Again, 449 divided by 225, gives 2 for its integral quotient, which taken from 224, leaves 222; and this, added to 449, makes 671, the sine of the third arc. In this way, the sines are successively formed, till the quadrant is completed. The integral quotients, however, are deferred; that is, the nearest whole number in advance is not always taken. Thus the quotient of 1315 by 225, being 5[illegible], which approaches nearer to 6, yet 5 is still retained. These efforts to redress the errors of computation are marked with asterisks.

[illegible]

[illegible] and if a [illegible] may be the pre- [illegible] stage of improvement— [illegible] high antiquity. It [illegible] in Europe, carried [illegible] The natives of Hindostan [illegible] Persian astronomers, who [illegible] and [illegible] the skill and liberal- [illegible] seems to derive [illegible] a very meagre and de- [illegible] and geometry, which I [illegible] summing, with the [illegible] in the library of the [illegible] a translation from [illegible] printed at the ex- [illegible] has since reached us, [illegible] mathematicians, who are ac- [illegible] of letters in [illegible] Bramins to their [illegible] utter nakedness of a sys- [illegible] ignorance and oriental exagge- [illegible] with a sort of magical [illegible] the person who understands it " to [illegible] of an eye, the number of leaves on a tree,

or of blades of grass in a meadow, or the number of grains of sand on the sea shore."

On reconsidering the subject, I have no doubt that this abridged table of sines was originally derived from the Arabians. They proceeded in their computation, we have seen, from the bisections of the *Kardaga* or arc of 15°, and in disposing of the results they might occasionally, instead of descending to seconds, stop at minutes. This would give a radius of 3600′; but, if they estimated the radius in sexagesimal parts of the circumference, it would be reduced to 3438′. But the fourth part of 15° or the 24th part of a quadrant, is 225′, which must be very nearly the length of its sine measured by the same scale. The sines of the successive multiple arcs form a recurring series, the composition of which it was not difficult to perceive. The fundamental table of Purbachius, who followed the Arabians, was, we have already observed, adapted to the same subdivision of the quadrant.

24. The principles before stated lead to an elegant construction of the approximate sines, entirely adapted to the decimal scale of numeration, and the nautical division of the circle. Suppose a quadrant to contain 16 equal parts, or *half points of the mariner's compass;* the length of each arc, the radius being unit, is nearly $\frac{22}{7}.\frac{1}{32}=\frac{11}{112}$, and consequently twice its versed sine is $(\frac{11}{112})^2$, or, in round numbers, $\frac{1}{103}$. It will be sufficiently accurate, therefore, to employ 100 for the constant divisor. The sine of the first arc or half point being likewise expressed by 100, let the nearer integral quotients be always retained, and the sine of the whole quadrant, or the radius itself, will come out exactly 1000. The first term being divided by 100 gives 1 for the second difference, which, subtracted from 100, leaves 99 for the first difference, and this joined to 100, forms the second term. Again, dividing 199 by 100, the quotient 2 is the second difference, which, taken from 99, leaves 97 for the first difference, and this added to 199, gives the third term. In like manner, the rest of the terms are found.

Half points.	Arcs.	Sines.	1st Diff.	2d Diff.	Excess.	Correct Sines.
1	5° 37½′	100	99	1	3	97
2	11 15	199	97	2	4	195
3	16 52½	296	94	3	5	291
4	22 30	390	90	4	6	384
5	28 7½	480	85	5	7	473
6	33 45	565	79	6	8	557
7	39 22½	644	73	6	9	635
8	45 00	717	66	7	10	707
9	50 37½	783	58	8	9	774
10	56 15	841	50	8	8	833
11	61 52½	891	41	9	7	884
12	67 30	932	32	9	6	926
13	73 7½	964	22	10	5	959
14	78 45	986	12	10	4	982
15	84 22½	998	2	10	3	995
16	90 00	1000				

The errors occasioned by neglecting the fractions accumulate at first, but afterwards gradually diminish, from the effect of compensation. The greatest deviation takes place, as might be expected, at the middle arc, whose sine is 707 instead of 717. Reckoning the error in excess as limited by 10, and declining uniformly on each side, the correct sines are finally deduced. The numbers thus obtained seldom differ, by the thousandth part, from the truth, and are hence far more accurate than the practice of navigation ever requires. This simple and expeditious mode of forming the sines is not merely an object of curiosity, but may be deemed of very considerable importance, as it will enable the mariner, altogether independent of the aid of books, to the loss of which he is often exposed by the hazards of the sea, to construct a table *of departure* and *difference of latitude*, sufficiently accurate for every real purpose.

25. In trigonometrical investigations, it is often requisite to determine the proportion which the *difference* of an arc bears to that of its related lines. With this view, let Δ denote the increment or finite difference of the quantity to which it is prefixed.

1. In art. 29. of NO. 15. change A into $A+\Delta A$, and B into A; then will

$\Delta sin A=2 sin \frac{1}{2}\Delta A cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)$.

2. Make the same change in art. 31. of that number, and

$\Delta cos A=-2 sin \frac{1}{2}\Delta A sin(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)$.

3. In art. 2. of NO. 19. let a similar change be made, and

$\Delta tan A=\frac{sin \Delta A}{cos A cos(A+\Delta A)}$:

4. Do the same thing in art. 4. and

$\Delta cot A=-\frac{sin \Delta A}{sin A sin(A+\Delta A)}$.

5. In art. 22. of NO. 15. make a like substitution, and

$\Delta sin A^2=sin \Delta A . sin(2A+\Delta A)$.

6. Let the same change be made in art. 23., and

$\Delta cos A^2=-sin \Delta A . sin(2A+\Delta A)$.

7. Do the same thing in art. 16. of NO. 19. and

$\Delta tan A^2=\frac{sin \Delta A(sin 2A+\Delta A)}{cos A^2 cos(A+\Delta A)^2}$.

8. Lastly, let a similar change be made in art. 17. of that number, and

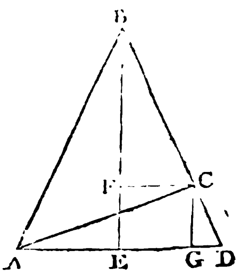
$\Delta cot A^2=-\frac{sin \Delta A(sin 2A+\Delta A)}{sin A^2 sin(A+\Delta A)^2}$.

If the *differences* be conceived to diminish indefinitely and pass into *differentials*, these expressions, in coming to denote only limiting ratios, will drop their excrescences and acquire a much simpler form. Thus, adopting the characteristic *d*, since the ratio of an arc to its sine is ultimately that of equality, and the sine of $A+dA$ may be considered as the same with the sine of A; it follows that

1. $d\ sin A=+cos A dA$.
2. $d\ cos A=-sin A dA$.
3. $d\ tan A=+\frac{dA}{cos A^2}$.
4. $d\ cot A=-\frac{dA}{sin A^2}$.
5. $d\ sin A^2=+2 sin A cos A dA$.
6. $d\ cos A^2=-2 sin A cos A dA$.
7. $d\ tan A^2=+\frac{2 tan A dA}{cos A^2}$.
8. $d\ cot A^2=-\frac{2 cot A dA}{sin A^2}$.

Since $dsinA = cosAdA$, or the variation of the sine of an arc is proportional to its cosine; it follows that, near the termination of the quadrant, the slightest alteration in the value of a sine would occasion a material change in the arc itself. Again, $dtanA = \frac{dA}{cosA^2}$, or the variation of the tangent is inversely as the square of the cosine, and must therefore increase with extreme rapidity as the arc approaches to a quadrant.

26. Propositions 12, 13, and 14 might be demonstrated from another figure. Produce the shorter side BC of the triangle ABC till BD be equal to BA, join AD, bisect the vertical angle by the line BE, and draw CG and CF parallel to BE and AD.



It is evident that BE will bisect AD at right angles; wherefore (II. 24. El.) $AE.EG = \frac{AC^2 - CD^2}{4} =$ (II. 19. El.) $\frac{AC+CD}{2} \cdot \frac{AC-CD}{2}$. But $CD = AB - BC$; and consequently $\frac{AC+CD}{2} = \frac{AC+AB-BC}{2}$, and $\frac{AC-CD}{2} = \frac{AC+BC-AB}{2}$. Let S then denote the semiperimeter of the triangle ABC, and $AE.EG = (S-BC)(S-AB)$.

Again, the triangles FBC and EBD being similar, $(BD+BC)^2 =$ (II. 10. El.) $(BE+BF)^2 + (ED+FC)^2 = (BE+BF)^2 + AG^2$; but $AG^2 =$ (II. 11. El.) $AC^2 - CG^2$, and therefore $(BA+BC)^2 - AC^2 = (BE+BF)^2 - CG^2$; again (II. 19. El.) $(BA+BC+AC)(BA+BC-AC) = (BE+BF+FE)(BE+BF-FE) = 2BE.2BF$; whence $BE.BF = \left(\frac{BA+BC+AC}{2}\right)\left(\frac{BA+BC-AC}{2}\right) = S(S-AC)$. Now, in the right-angled triangles BFC and BED (Prop. 7. Trig.)

1. $BC : FC :: R : sin\frac{1}{2}B$, and $BD : ED :: R : sin\frac{1}{2}B$; wherefore

BA.BC : AE.EG : : R^2 $sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$, or BA.BC : (S—BA) (S—BC) : : R^2 : $sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

2. By Prop. 8. Trig. BF : FC : : R : $tan\frac{1}{2}B$, and BE : ED : : R : $tan\frac{1}{2}B$; whence BE.BF : AE.EG : : R^2 : $tan\frac{1}{2}B$, or S(S—AC) : (S—BA) (S—BC) : : R^2 : $tan\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

3. BC : BF : : R : $cos\frac{1}{2}B$, and BD : BE : : R : $cos\frac{1}{2}B$; consequently BA.BC : BE.BF : : R^2 : $cos\frac{1}{2}B^2$, that is, BA.BC : S(S—AC) : : R^2 : $sin\frac{1}{2}B^2$.

The same figure would also furnish an easy proof of the remarkable property, that the area of a triangle is a mean proportional between the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, and the rectangle under its excesses above the two sides. For the area of the triangle ABC, or of the difference between the triangles ABD and ACD, is equivalent (II. 6. El.) to BE.AE—CG.AE or FE.AE= BF.AE. But the triangles BFC and BEA being similar, BE : AE : : BF : FC ; and consequently (V. 3. El.) BF.BE : BF.AE : : AE.BF : AE.EG, that is, T expressing the area of the triangle, S(S—AC) : T : : T : (S—AB) (S—BC).

27. It is convenient to reduce the solution of triangles to algebraic *formulæ*. Let a, b and c denote the sides of any plane triangle, and A, B, and C their opposite angles. The various relations which connect these quantities may all be derived from the application of Prop. 11.

1. $Cos\ A=\frac{b^2+c^2-a^2}{2bc}$.

2. But, since (art. 16. NO. 3.) $sin\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{1}{2}(1-cosA)$, it follows, by substitution, that $sin\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{2bc-b^2-c^2+a^2}{4bc}=\frac{a^2-(b-c)^2}{4bc}=\frac{(a+b-c)(a-b+c)}{4bc}$, and therefore, s denoting the semiperimeter, $Sin\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{(s-b)\ (s-c)}{bc}$; which corresponds to Prop. 14.

3. Again, because (art. 17. Note 3.) $cos\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{1}{2}(1+cosA)$, by substitution, $cos\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{2bc+b^2+c^2-a^2}{4bc}=\frac{(b+c)^2-a^2}{4bc}=$

$\frac{((b+c)+a)\ ((b+c)-a)}{4bc}$, and consequently

$Cos\frac{1}{2}A^2 = \frac{s(s-a)}{bc}$; which agrees with Prop. 13.

4. The second expression being now divided by the third, gives $tan\ \frac{1}{2}A^2 = \frac{(s-b)\ (s-c)}{s(s-a)}$, corresponding to Prop. 12.

These are the *formulæ* wanted for the solution of the first case of oblique-angled triangles. To obtain the rest, another transformation is required.

5. It is manifest that $sin A^2 = 1 - cos A^2 = \frac{4b^2c^2 - (b^2+c^2-a^2)^2}{4b^2c^2}$, and consequently, by Note 5. Book VI., $sin A^2 = \frac{4T^2}{b^2c^2}$, or $sin\ A = \frac{2T}{bc}$. For the same reason, $sin B = \frac{2T}{ac}$, and hence $\frac{sin A}{sin B} = \frac{a}{b}$; which corresponds to Prop. 9.

6. Again, by composition, $\frac{sin A - sin B}{sin A + sin B} = \frac{a-b}{a+b}$, and therefore, by art. 18. Note 7.
$\frac{a-b}{a+b} = \frac{tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}$, which agrees with Prop. 10.

7. Lastly, transforming the first expression, there results,
$a = \sqrt{(b^2+c^2-2bc\ cos A)} = \sqrt{(\ (b-c)^2 + 2bc\ vers A)}$
$= \sqrt{(\ (b+c)^2 - 2bc(1+cos A)\ )}$.

The preceding *formulæ* will solve all the cases in plane trigonometry; but, by certain modifications, they may be sometimes better adapted for logarithmic calculation.

8. Divide the terms of art. 6. by a, and $\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)} = \frac{1-\frac{b}{a}}{1+\frac{b}{a}}$;
let $\frac{b}{a} = tan x$, and $\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)} = \frac{1-tan\ x}{1+tan\ x} =$ (art. 6. NO. 19.) $tan\ (45^\circ - x)$. Wherefore, $\frac{b}{a} = tan\ x$, and $tan(45^\circ - x) =$

$\tan\frac{1}{2}C \tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B) = \tan\frac{1}{2}C \cot(\frac{1}{2}C+B) =$
$\tan\frac{1}{2}C(-\cot(\frac{1}{2}C+A))$.

9. Again, from art. 7. $a = \sqrt{((b-c)^2 + 2bc\ \text{vers}A)} = (b-c)\sqrt{(1+\frac{2bc}{(b-c)^2}.\ \text{vers}A)}$; consequently find $\tan x = \frac{\sqrt{2bc}}{b-c}\sqrt{\text{vers}\ A} = 2\frac{\sqrt{bc}}{b-c}\sin\frac{1}{2}A$, and $a = (b-c)\sec x = \frac{b-c}{\cos x}$.

10. But the expression in art. 1., by a different decomposition, gives $a = \sqrt{((b+c)^2 - 2bc\ \text{suvers}A)} = (b+c)\sqrt{(1-\frac{2bc}{(b+c^2)^2}\text{suvers}A)}$; wherefore find $\sin x = \frac{\sqrt{2bc}}{b+c}\sqrt{\text{suvers}A} = 2\frac{\sqrt{bc}}{b+c}\cos\frac{1}{2}A$, and $a = (b+c)\cos x$.

11. Other expressions are likewise occasionally used. Thus, by art. 1., $2bc.\cos A = b^2+c^2-a^2$, or $c^2 - 2bc.\cos A = a^2 - b^2$, and, solving this quadratic, we obtain $c = b\cos A \pm \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2 + b^2\cos A^2)} = b\cos A \pm \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2\sin A^2)}$, or $c = b\cos A \pm \sqrt{((a+b\sin A)(a-b\sin A))}$. When two sides and an angle opposite to one of them are given, the third side is thus found by a direct process.

12. From art. 5., $c = a\frac{\sin C}{\sin A}$; but C being a supplementary angle, its sine is the same as that of A+B, and consequently $c = a\left(\frac{\sin A\cos B + \cos A\sin B}{\sin A}\right)$. By a similar transformation,

$$c = a\frac{\sin C}{\sin(B=C)} = a\frac{\sin C}{\sin B\cos C + \cos B\sin C} = \frac{a}{\cos B + \sin B\cot C}.$$

13. Lastly, from art. 3. of Note 19, $\cot A + \cot C = \frac{\sin(A+C)}{\sin A\sin C} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin A\sin C} = \frac{b}{a\sin C}$, and therefore $\cot A = \frac{b}{a\sin C} - \cot C = \frac{b - a\cos C}{a\sin C}$, or $\tan A = \frac{a\sin C}{b-a\sin C}$.

If the angle A be assumed equal to 90°, the preceding *formulæ* will become restricted to the solution of right-angled triangles.

14. From art. 1., $\cos A = o = \frac{b^2+c^2-a^2}{2bc}$; whence, $a^2 = b^2+c^2$,

which expresses the radical property of the right-angled triangle.

15. From art. 5., $\frac{sin B}{sin A}=\frac{b}{a}$, and consequently $sin\ B=\frac{b}{a}$, which corresponds with Prop. 7.

16. Again, from the same article, $\frac{b}{c}=\frac{sin B}{sin C}=\frac{sin B}{cos B}$, and therefore $tan\ B=\frac{b}{c}=cot C$.

For the convenience of computing with logarithms, other expressions may be produced.

17. Thus, from art. 14., $b^2=a^2-c^2$, and hence $b=\surd((a+c)(a-c))$.

18. Since $a^2=b^2(1-\frac{c^2}{b^2})$, put $\frac{c}{b}=tan\ x$, and $a=b(sec\ c)=\frac{b}{cos\ x}$.

19. Lastly, because $b^2=a^2\ (1+\frac{c^2}{a^2})$, put $\frac{c}{a}=sin\ x$, and $b=a.cos\ x$.

Besides the regular cases in the solution of triangles, other combinations of a more intricate kind sometimes occur in practice. It will suffice here to notice the most remarkable of these varieties.

20. Thus, suppose a side, with its opposite angle and the sum or difference of the containing sides, were given, to determine the triangle. By art. 5., $a=\frac{b\ sin A}{sin B}=\frac{c\ sin A}{sin C}$, and therefore $a=\frac{b\ sin A+c\ sin A}{sin B+sin C}=\frac{(b+c)sin(B+C)}{sin B+sin C}=$ (art. 5. and 18. Note 15.) $\frac{(b+c)2sin\frac{1}{2}(B+)C cos\frac{1}{2}(B+C)}{2sin\frac{1}{2}(B+C)cos\frac{1}{2}(B-C)}=\frac{(b+c)cos\frac{1}{2}(B+C)}{cos\frac{1}{2}(B-C)}$.
But $cos\frac{1}{2}(B+C)=sin\frac{1}{2}A$, and hence $cos\frac{1}{2}(B-C)=\frac{(b+c)sin\frac{1}{2}A}{a}$; and the difference of the supplementary angles B and C being known, these angles themselves are hence found.

In like manner, it will be found that $sin\frac{1}{2}(B-C)=\frac{(b-c)cos\frac{1}{2}A}{a}$.

21. Let a side with its adjacent angle and the sum of the other sides be given, to determine the triangle. By art. 4. $tan\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{s-b.s-c}{s.s-a}$ and $tan\frac{1}{2}B^2=\frac{s-a.s-c}{s.s-b}$; whence $tan\frac{1}{2}A^2\, tan\frac{1}{2}B^2=\frac{s-a.s-b.(s-c)^2}{s-a.s-b.s^2}$, and consequently $tan\frac{1}{2}A\,tan\frac{1}{2}B=\frac{s-c}{s}=\frac{(a+b)-c}{(a+b)+c}$, or $cot\frac{1}{2}B=tan\frac{1}{2}A\,\frac{(a+b)+c}{(a+b)-c}$.

Again by art. 1., $2bc\,cosA=b^2+c^2-a^2$, or $a^2-b^2-c^2=-2bc.cosA$, and adding $2ab+2b^2$ to both sides, $a^2+2ab+b^2-c^2=2ab+2b^2-2bc.cosA$, or $(a+b)^2-c^2=2b(a+b-c.cosA)$; whence $((a+b)+c)((a+b)-c)=2b(a+b-c.cosA)$, and $b=\frac{1}{2}\frac{((a+b)+c)((a+b)-c)}{(a+b)-c.cosA}$.

If the sign of b be changed, and the supplement of its adjacent angle therefore assumed, we shall obtain $cot\frac{1}{2}B=tan\frac{1}{2}A\frac{c+(a-b)}{c-(a-b)}$, and $b=\frac{1}{2}\frac{(c-(a-b))(c+(a-b))}{c.cosA-(a-b)}$.

The relation of the sides and angles of a triangle might also be in some cases conveniently expressed by a converging series. Thus $\frac{b}{a}=\frac{sinB}{sinA}=\frac{sinB}{sin(B+C)}=\frac{sinB}{sinB\,cosC+cosB\,sinC}$, and consequently $b\,sinB\,cosC+b\,cosB\,sin\,C=a\,sin\,B$, or $\frac{b\,sinC}{a-b\,cosC}=\frac{sinB}{cosB}=tanB$. Wherefore, by actual division, $tanB=\frac{b}{a}sinC+\frac{b^2}{a^2}sinC\,cosC+\frac{b^3}{a^3}sinC\,cosC^2+\frac{b^4}{a^4}sinC\,cosC^3+$ &c.; and, in substituting the powers of this expression for those of the tangent in the series of Note 9., we obtain $B=\frac{b}{a}sin\,C+\frac{b^2}{a^2}sinC\,cosC+\frac{b^3}{3a^3}(4cosC^2-1)\,sinC+\frac{b^4}{a^4}(2\,cosC^2-1)\,sin\,C\,cosC+$ &c.; or $\frac{b}{a}\,sinC+\frac{b^2}{2a^2}sin2C+\frac{b^3}{3a^3}sin3C+\frac{b^4}{4a^4}sin4C+$ &c.

In certain extreme cases, approximations can likewise be employed with advantage. Thus, suppose the angles A and B to be exceedingly small; then, by page 247, their versed sines are very nearly equal to half the squares of the sines. Wherefore, sinC, or $sin\,(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B})=$(art. 1. Note 15.), $sin\mathrm{A}(1-\frac{1}{2}sin\mathrm{B}^2)$ $+\ sin\mathrm{B}\,(1-\frac{1}{2}sin\mathrm{A}^2)$ nearly, and consequently, by art. 5., $c=(a+b)\,(1-\frac{1}{2}sin\mathrm{A}\ sin\mathrm{B})$; or, the arcs being nearly equal to their sines, substitute c for $a+b$ in the second or differential term, and $c=a+b-\frac{1}{2}c\mathrm{AB}$. Again, put $\mathrm{C}=\pi-\theta$, or $\theta=\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}$, and $(a+b)\,(\frac{1}{2}sin\mathrm{A}sin\mathrm{B})=\frac{1}{2}sin\mathrm{A}sin\mathrm{B}\frac{(a+b)^2}{a+b}=\frac{1}{2}\theta^2\frac{ab}{a+b}$ nearly, or $c=a+b-\frac{1}{2}\theta^2\frac{ab}{a+b}$.

28. Proposition twenty-fifth, which is employed with great advantage in maritime surveying, admits likewise of a convenient analytical solution. Let the given distances AB, BC and AC be denoted by a, b and c, and the observed angles ADB and CDB by m and n; then (art. 5. Note 15.) $\mathrm{BD}=\frac{a\ sin\mathrm{BAD}}{sin\ m}=\frac{b sin\mathrm{BCD}}{sin\ n}$, or $\frac{b\ sin\ m}{a\ sin\ n}=\frac{sin\mathrm{BAD}}{sin\mathrm{BCD}}$ and $\frac{b\ sin\ m-a\ sin\ n}{b\ sin\ m+a\ sin\ n}=\frac{sin\mathrm{BAD}-sin\mathrm{BCD}}{sin\mathrm{BAD}+sin\mathrm{BCD}}=$ (art. 18. Note 19.) $\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}(\mathrm{BAD}-\mathrm{BCD})}{tan\frac{1}{2}(\mathrm{BAD}+\mathrm{BCD})}$. But the angles ABC and ADC of the quadrilateral figure DABC being evidently given, the sum of the remaining angles BAD and BCD is given, and each of them is consequently found. Hence the triangles ABD and CBD are immediately determined.

This most useful problem was first proposed by Mr Townley, and solved in its various cases by Mr John Collins, in the *Philosophical Transactions* for the year 1671. The second solution given in the text is borrowed from Legendre.

29. The reduction of oblique angles to their projection on a horizontal plane, is commonly solved by the help of spherical trigonometry. It admits, however, of a simple and elegant general solution, derived from the arithmetic of sines. Let a and b denote the two vertical angles, or the acclivities of the

diverging lines, A the oblique angle which these contain, and A′ the reduced or horizontal angle. Since the magnitude of an angle depends not on the length of its sides, assume each of them equal to the radius or unit, and it is evident that the base of the isosceles triangle thus limited will be the chord of the oblique angle A, the perpendiculars from its extremities to the horizontal plane, the sines,—and the horizontal traces or projections, the cosines, of the vertical angles a and b. The base of the isosceles triangle forms the hypotenuse of a right-angled vertical triangle, of which the perpendicular is the difference between the vertical lines. Consequently the square of the reduced base is equal to the excess of the square of the chord of A above the square of the difference of the sines of a and b, or

(cor. 6. def. Trig.) $2-2\cos A-(\sin a-\sin b)^2=$
(II. 16. El.) $2-2\cos A-\sin a^2-\sin b^2+2\sin a\sin b=$
(2. cor. def. Trig.) $\cos a^2+\cos b^2+2\sin a\sin b-2\cos A$.

Wherefore (Prop. 11. Trig.) in the triangle now traced on the horizontal plane, $2\cos a\cos b\cos A'=2\cos A-2\sin a\sin b$; and multiplying by $\frac{1}{2}\sec a\sec b$, there results (cor. 4. def. Trig.),

1. $\cos A'=\sec a\sec b\cos A-\tan a\tan b$.

This expression appears concise and commodious, but it may be still variously transformed.

For $\text{vers}\,A'=1-\cos A'=1+\tan a\tan b-\sec a\sec b\cos A$ $=\sec a\sec b\,(\cos a\cos b+\sin a\sin b-\cos A)=$ (Prop. 2. Trig.) $\sec a\sec b(\cos(a-b)-\cos A)$: whence

2. $\text{vers}\,A'=\sec a\sec b(\text{vers}\,A-\text{vers}(a-b))$.

Again, because (2. cor. 1. and 3. cor. 5. Trig.) $\text{vers}\,A'=2\sin\frac{1}{2}A'^2$ and $\text{vers}\,A-\text{vers}(a-b)=2\sin\frac{A+(a-b)}{2}.\sin\frac{A-(a-b)}{2}$, we obtain, by substitution,

3. $\sin\frac{1}{2}A'^2=\sec a\sec b(\sin\frac{A+(a-b)}{2}.\sin\frac{A-(a+b)}{2})$.

Of these formulæ, the first, which I had presumed to be new, appears distinguished by its simplicity and elegance. The last one, however, is, on the whole, the best adapted for calculation by logarithms.

When the vertical angles are small, the problem will admit of a very convenient approximation. For, assuming the arcs a, b as equal to their tangents, it follows, by substitution, that $\cos A' = \cos A\sqrt{(1+a^2)}\sqrt{(1+b^2)} - ab = \cos A((1+\frac{1}{2}a^2)(1+\frac{1}{2}b^2)) - ab$ $= \cos A(1+\frac{1}{2}a^2+\frac{1}{2}b^2) - ab$, nearly. Whence, by Note 25, the decrement of the cosine of that oblique angle is

$$ab - \cos A(\tfrac{1}{2}a^2+\tfrac{1}{2}b^2);\text{ but}$$

(II. 17. El.) $ab = (\frac{a+b}{2})^2 - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2$, and

(II. 18. El.) $\frac{1}{2}a^2+\frac{1}{2}b^2 = (\frac{a+b}{2})^2 + (\frac{a-b}{2})^2$;

wherefore the decrement of $\cos A' =$

$$(\frac{a+b}{2})^2 - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2 - \cos A\left((\frac{a+b}{2})^2 + (\frac{a-b}{2})^2\right) =$$

$$(\frac{a+b}{2})^2(1-\cos A) - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2(1+\cos A).$$

Consequently the increment of the oblique angle itself is, by Note 25,

$$(\frac{a+b}{2})^2(\frac{1-\cos A}{\sin A}) - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2(\frac{1+\cos A}{\sin A}) = \text{(art. 15. Note 19.)}.$$

$$(\frac{a+b}{2})^2 \tan\tfrac{1}{2}A - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2 \cot\tfrac{1}{2}A.$$

Such is the theorem which the celebrated Legendre has given, for reducing an oblique angle to its projection on the horizontal plane. It is very neat, and extremely useful in practice. But to connect it with our division of the quadrant, requires some adaptation. Let a and b express the vertical angles in minutes; then will $\left((\frac{a+b}{2})^2\tan\frac{1}{2}A - (\frac{a-b}{2})^2\cot\frac{1}{2}A\right)\frac{1}{3438}$ denote, likewise in minutes, the quantity of reduction to be applied to the oblique angle.

30. In computing very extensive surveys, it becomes necessary to allow for the minute derangements occasioned by the convexity of the surface of our globe. The sides of the triangles which connect the successive stations, though reduced to the same horizontal plane, may be considered as formed by arcs of

great circles, and their solution hence belongs to Spherical Trigonometry. But, avoiding such laborious calculations, for which indeed our Tables are not fitted, it seems far better to estimate merely the deviation of those incurved triangles from triangles with rectilineal sides. For effecting that correction two ingenious methods have lately been proposed on the Continent. The first is that employed by M. Delambre, who substitutes the chords for their arcs, and thus converts the small spherical, into a plane, triangle. This conversion requires two distinct steps. 1. Each spherical angle, or that formed by tangents at the surface of the globe, is changed into its corresponding plane angle contained by the chords. Let α and β express the sides or arcs in miles; and the angles of elevation, or those made by the tangents and the respective chords, will be (III. 29. El.) denoted by $\frac{21600}{24856}\frac{1}{2}\alpha$ and $\frac{21600}{24856}\frac{1}{2}\beta$ in minutes, or $\frac{1350'}{3107}\alpha$ and $\frac{1350'}{3107}\beta$. Insert these, therefore, in place of a and b in the *formula* of the preceding note, and the quantity of reduction of the angle A, contained by the small arcs α and β, will be $((\alpha+\beta)^2 \tan \frac{1}{2} A - (\alpha-\beta)^2 \cot \frac{1}{2} A)\frac{1}{1214}$ in seconds. 2. Each arc is converted into its chord: But, by the Scholium to Proposition VI. of the Trigonometry, an arc α is to its chord, as 1 to $1-\frac{\alpha^2}{6D^2}$; wherefore the diminution of that arc in passing into its chord amounts to the $\frac{\alpha^2}{375,600,000}$ part of the whole.

These reductions bestow great accuracy, and are sufficiently commodious in practice. But the second method of correcting the effects of the earth's convexity, and which was given by M. Legendre, is distinguished by its conciseness and peculiar elegance. That profound geometer viewed the spherical triangle as having its curved sides stretched out on a plane, and sought to determine the variation which its angles would thence undergo. Analysis led him, through a complicated process, to the discovery of a theorem of singular beau-

ty. But the following investigation, grounded on other principles, appears to be much simpler.

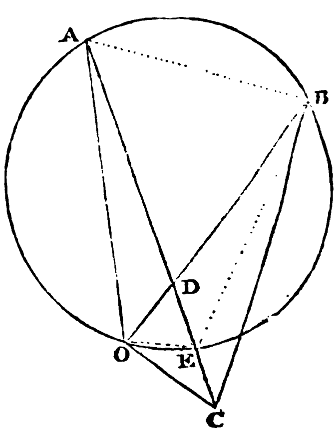
Let A and B denote any two angles in the small spherical triangle, and α and β express in miles the opposite sides, or those of its extension upon a plane. Since (Prop. 9. Trig.) $\alpha : \beta :: sin A : sin B$, there must exist some minute arc θ, such that $sin\,\alpha \quad sin\beta :: sin(A+\theta) : sin(B+\theta.)$. But (art. 1. Note 3.) $sin\,(A+\theta) = sin A + \theta\, cos A$, and (Schol. Prop. VI. Trig.) $sin\,\alpha = \alpha - \frac{\alpha^3}{6}$; whence $\alpha - \frac{\alpha^3}{6} : \beta - \frac{\beta^3}{6} :: sin A + \theta\, cos A : sin B + \theta\, cos B$. Now $\beta : \alpha :: sin B : sin A$, and therefore, (V. 9. El.) $1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{6} : 1 - \frac{\beta^2}{6} :: sin A.\,sin B + \theta\, cos A.\; sin B : sin A.\; sin\,B + \theta\, sin A.\, cos B$. But the first and second terms being very nearly equal, and likewise the third and fourth,—it is obvious that the analogy will not be disturbed, if each of those pairs be increased equally. Hence $1 : 1 + \frac{\alpha^2-\beta^2}{6} :: sin A\, sin B : sin A sin B + \theta\,(sin A\; cos B - cos A\; sin B)$; and since (Prop. I. Trig.) $sin A\; cos\,B - cos A\; sin\,B = sin\,(A-B)$, therefore (V. 10. El.) $1 : \frac{\alpha^2-\beta^2}{6} :: sin\,A\; sin B : \theta\, sin\,(A-B)$. Consequently, since α and β are proportional to $sin A$ and $sin B$, $\theta\,(sin A-B) = sin A sin B\left(\frac{\alpha^2-\beta^2}{6}\right) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{6}\,(sin A^2 - sin B^2) =$ (Prop. III. cor. 5. Trigonometry,) $\frac{\alpha\beta}{6}\Big(sin\,(A+B)\, sin\,(A-B)\Big)$, or $\theta = \frac{\alpha\beta}{6}\, sin(A+B)$. But the sine of the sum of A and B is the same as that of their supplement C, or of the angle contained by the sides α and β, and consequently θ is the third part of $\frac{\alpha\beta}{2}\, sin C$, the area of the triangle, or the third part of the excess of the angles of the spherical, above those of the plane, triangle. Wherefore the sines of the sides, which, in the spherical triangle, are as the sines of their opposite angles, are likewise proportioned, in the plane triangle, to the sines of those angles, augmenting each by the common excess. It is hence evident, that the angles of the plane triangle are obtained from those of the spherical, by de-

ducting from each the third part of the excess above two right angles, as indicated by the area of the triangle.

The whole surface of the globe being proportioned to 720°, that of a square mile will correspond to $\frac{720^\circ}{24856 \times 7912}$, or the $\frac{1}{75.88}$ part of a second. Hence each angle of the small spherical triangle requires to be diminished by $\alpha\beta.\ sin\ C.\frac{1}{455.28}$, in seconds.

31. Another problem of great use in the practice of delicate surveying, is *to reduce angles to the centre of the station*. Instead of planting moveable signals at each point of observation, it will often be found more convenient to select the more notable spires, towers, or other prominent objects which occur interspersed over the face of the country. In such cases, it is evidently impossible for the theodolite or circular instrument, although brought within the cover of the building, to be placed immediately under the vane. The observer approaches the centre of the station as near, therefore, as he can with advantage, and calculates the quantity of error which the minute displacement may occasion. Thus, suppose it were required to determine the angle AOB which the remote objects A and B subtend at O, the centre of a permanent station: The instrument is placed in the immediate vicinity at the point C, and the distance CO, with the angle of deviation OCA, are noted, while the principal angle ADCB is observed. The central angle AOB may hence be computed from the rules of trigonometry; but the calculation is effected by simpler and more expeditious methods. Since (I. 30. El.) the exterior angle ADB is equal both to AOB with OAC, and to ACB with OBC; it is evident that $AOB = ACB + OBC - OAC$. But the angles OBC and OAC, being extremely small, may be considered as equal to their sines, and (art. 5. Note 14.) $sin\ OBC = \frac{CO}{OB}\ sin\ BCO$, and $sin\ OAC = \frac{CO}{OA}\ sin\ ACO$; wherefore the angle AOB at

the centre is nearly equal to ACB + CO$\left(\frac{sin\text{BCO}}{\text{OB}}-\frac{sin\,\text{ACO}}{\text{OA}}\right)$ $= \text{ACB} + \text{CO}\left(\frac{sin(\text{ACB}+\text{ACO})}{\text{OB}}-\frac{sin\text{ACO}}{\text{OA}}\right)$. Call the distances AC and BC of the point of observation, a and b, the distances AO and BO of the centre a' and b'; the displacement CO, and the angle ACO of deviation m and φ, while the subtended angles ACB and AOB are denoted by C and C′, and the opposite angles ABO & OAB by A & B; then $\text{C}'= \text{C}+m\left(\frac{sin(\text{C}+\varphi)}{b'}-\frac{sin\varphi}{a'}\right)3438'$. If the centre O lies on AC,



the correction of the observed angle, expressed in minutes, will be merely $\left(\frac{m}{b'}sin\text{C}\right)$ 3438′.

But the problem admits of a simpler approximation. Let a circle circumscribe the points A, O, and B, and cut AC in E. The angle AOB = (III. 16. El.) AEB = ACB + CBE; but $sin\text{CBE} = \frac{\text{CE}}{\text{EB}}\,sin\text{ACB}$, and sinOEC = sinAEO or ABO is equal to $\frac{\text{CO}}{\text{CE}}\,sin\text{COE}$ or AEO—ACO, and hence by combination $sin\,\text{CBE} = \frac{\text{CO}}{\text{EB}}\frac{sin\text{ACB}\,sin(\text{ABO}-\text{ACO})}{sin\text{ABO}}$. Since, therefore, EB is nearly equal to OB, and the small angle CBE may be regarded as equal to its sine, the correction to be added to the observed angle is denoted in minutes by $\frac{m}{b'}$ $\frac{sin\text{C}sin(\text{A}-\varphi)}{sin\text{A}}$ 3438. This quantity, it is evident, will entirely vanish when φ becomes equal to A, or the angle ABO equals

ACO; in which case, the point of observation C coincides with E, or lies in the circumference of a circle that passes through the two remote points A and B and centre of the station. To place the instrument at E, therefore, would only require to move it along CA, till the angle AEO be equal to ABO.

Both these methods for the reduction of an angle to the centre are given by M. Delambre; but, in his calculations, he generally preferred the last one, as being simpler and sufficiently accurate for practice. The investigation, however, will be found to be now considerably shortened.

32. The accuracy of trigonometrical operations must depend on the proper selection of the connecting triangles. It is very important, therefore, in practice, to estimate the variations which are produced among the several parts of a triangle, by any change of their mutual relations. Suppose two of the three determining parts of a triangle to remain constant, while the rest undergo some partial change; and let, as before, the small letters *a*, *b* and *c* denote the sides of the triangle, and the capitals A, B and C their opposite angles.

Case I.—*When two sides a and b are constant.*

Since the angles A and B, after passing into $A+\Delta A$ and $B+\Delta B$, must have their sines still proportional to the opposite sides, it is evident that $\frac{\sin A}{\sin(A+\Delta A)}=\frac{\sin B}{\sin(B+\Delta B)}$, and consequently $\frac{\sin(A+\Delta A)-\sin A}{\sin(A+\Delta A)+\sin A}=\frac{\sin(B+\Delta B)-\sin B}{\sin(B+\Delta B)+\sin B}$; wherefore, by alternation and art. 7. Note 18.,

1. $\frac{\tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}{\tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}=\frac{\tan(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{\tan(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}$.

Next, in the incremental triangle formed by the sides c, $c+\Delta c$, and the contained angle ΔA, (art. 1. Note 18.)

$\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}=-\frac{\tan(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}{\cot\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}$, and hence reciprocally,

2. $\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}{\tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}=-\frac{c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{\cot(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}$

In like manner, from the incremental triangle contained by the sides $c, c+\Delta c$ and the angle ΔB, it follows that

3. $\dfrac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}=-\dfrac{c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{cot(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}$.

Again, the base of the incremental isosceles triangle contained by the equal sides b, b, and the vertical angle ΔC, is (art. 15. Note 18.) $2b\,sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C$; wherefore, in the incremental triangle formed with the same base and the sides c and $c+\Delta c$, by art. 20. Note 18., $cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)=-\dfrac{(c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c)sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{b\,sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}$; whence

4. $\dfrac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}=-\dfrac{b\,cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}$.

After the same manner, it will be found that

5. $\dfrac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}=-\dfrac{a\,cos(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}{c+\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}$.

Multiply the expressions of art. 4. into those of art. 3. and

6. $\dfrac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}=\dfrac{b\,sin(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{cos\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}$.

Multiply likewise the expressions of art. 2. and 5., and

7. $\dfrac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}=\dfrac{a\,sin(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}{cos\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}$.

If, in all the preceding *formulæ*, the increments annexed to the varying quantities be omitted, there will arise much simpler expressions for the differentials.

* 1. $\dfrac{dA}{dB}=\dfrac{tan A}{tan B}$.

* 2. $\dfrac{dc}{dA}=-\dfrac{c}{cot B}$.

* 3. $\dfrac{dc}{dB}=-\dfrac{c}{cot A}$.

* 4. $\dfrac{dB}{dC}=-\dfrac{b}{c}cos A$.

* 5. $\dfrac{dA}{dC}=-\dfrac{a}{c}cos B$.

* 6. $\dfrac{dc}{dC}=b\,sin\,A$.

* 7. $\dfrac{dc}{dC}=a\,sin\,B$.

Case II.—*When one side a, and its opposite angle* A, *are constant.*

Since (art. 5. Note 18.) $\frac{a}{sinA} = \frac{b}{sinB}$, it is evident that $a\,sinB = b\,sinA$, and taking the differences by art. 1. of Note 25. $\Delta b\, sinA = 2a\, sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B cos(B + \frac{1}{2}\Delta B)$, whence $\frac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b} = \frac{sinA}{a cos(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}$, and consequently, by art. 5. of Note 18.

$$8.\ \frac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b} = \frac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b} = \frac{sinB}{b\, cos(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}.$$

In like manner, it will be found that

$$9.\ \frac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c} = -\frac{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}{\frac{1}{2}\Delta c} = -\frac{sinC}{c\,(cosC+\frac{1}{2}\Delta C)}.$$

Combine the two last expressions, and

$$10.\ \frac{\Delta b}{\Delta c} = -\frac{cos(B+\frac{1}{2}\Delta B)}{cos(C+\frac{1}{2}\Delta C)}.$$

The differentials are discovered, by rejecting the modifications of the variable quantities.

$$\text{* } 8.\ \frac{dB}{db} = \frac{sinB}{b\, cosB} = \frac{tanB}{b}.$$

$$\text{* } 9.\ \frac{dB}{dc} = -\frac{sinC}{c\, cosC} = -\frac{tanC}{c}.$$

$$\text{* } 10.\ \frac{db}{dc} = -\frac{cosB}{cosC}.$$

Case III.—*When one side a, and its adjacent angle* B, *are constant.*

In the incremental triangle contained by the sides b, $b+\Delta b$, and Δc, it is evident, (art. 5. Note 18.), that

$$11.\ \frac{\Delta c}{sin\Delta C} = -\frac{\Delta c}{sin\Delta A}\ \ \frac{b}{sin(A+\Delta A)} = \frac{b+\Delta}{sinA}.$$

Again, in the same incremental triangle, (art. 5. Note 18.).

$$12.\ \frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta C} = -\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A} = \frac{b+\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{tan(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}.$$

Or, transforming the preceding expression,

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{b+\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}=-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}{tan(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)},$$ and consequently

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{b}=-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}{tan(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)+tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}=\text{(art. 1. Note 18.)}$$

$$-tan\tfrac{1}{2}\Delta A\left(\frac{cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A cos\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{sin(A+\Delta A)}\right)=-sin A\tfrac{1}{2}\Delta A\left(\frac{cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{sin(A+\Delta A)}\right);$$

wherefore,

13. $$\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta C}=-\frac{\frac{1}{2}\Delta b}{sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}=b\left(\frac{cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{sin(A+\Delta A)}\right).$$

Again, in the same incremental triangle, by art. 20. Note 4.

$$cos(A+\tfrac{1}{2}\Delta A)=\frac{\Delta b}{\Delta c}(-cos\tfrac{1}{2}\Delta C)=\frac{\Delta b}{\Delta c}cos\tfrac{1}{2}\Delta A;$$ whence

14. $$\frac{\Delta b}{\Delta c}=\frac{cos(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}{cos\frac{1}{2}\Delta A}.$$

The differentials are found as before, by the omission of the minute excrescences.

* 11. $$\frac{dc}{dC}=-\frac{dc}{dA}=\frac{b}{sin A}.$$

* 12. $$\frac{db}{dC}=-\frac{db}{dA}=\frac{b}{tan A}.$$

* 13. $$\frac{db}{dC}=-\frac{db}{dA}=b\left(\frac{cos A}{sin A}\right)=b\, cot A.$$

* 14. $$\frac{db}{dc}=cos A.$$

To compute the values of the finite differences, when these differences themselves are involved in their compound expression, the easiest method is to proceed by repeated approximations. Thus, from art. 3. $\Delta c=-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{cot(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}(2c+\Delta C)$; assume, therefore, first, $\Delta c=-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{cot(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}2c$; and then, $\Delta c=-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{cot(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}(2c-\frac{tan\frac{1}{2}\Delta B}{cot(A+\frac{1}{2}\Delta A)}2c)$. But it will seldom be requisite to advance beyond two steps, though the process, if continued, would evidently form an infinite converging series.

When only one part of a triangle remains constant, the expressions for the finite differences will often become extremely complicated. It may be sufficient in general to discover the relations of the differentials merely. To do this, let each indeterminate part be supposed to vary separately, and find, by the preceding *formulæ*, the effect produced; these distinct elements of variation being collected together, will exhibit the entire differential.

The materials of this intricate Note may be found in Cagnoli, but the subject was first started by our countryman Mr Cotes, a mathematician of profound and original genius, in a brief tract, entitled, *Estimatio Errorum in mixtâ Mathesi.* It is unfortunate that I have not room for explaining the application of those *formulæ* to the selection and proper combination of triangles in nice surveys.

33. Having in some of the preceding notes briefly pointed out the several corrections employed in the more delicate geodesiacal operations, I shall subjoin a few general remarks on the application of trigonometry to practice. The art of surveying consists in determining the boundaries of an extended surface. When performed in the completest manner, it ascertains the positions of all the prominent objects within the scope of observation, measures their mutual distances and relative heights, and consequently defines the various contours which mark the surface. But the land-surveyor seldom aims at such minute and scrupulous accuracy; his main object is to trace expeditiously the chief boundaries, and to compute the superficial contents of each field. In hilly grounds, however, it is not the absolute surface that is measured, but the diminished quantity which would result, had the whole been reduced to a horizontal plane. This distinction is founded on the obvious principle, that, since plants shoot up vertically, the vegetable produce of a swelling eminence can never exceed what would have grown from its levelled base. All the sloping or hypotenusal distances are, therefore, reduced invariably to their horizontal lengths, before the calculation of superficial contents is begun.

Land is surveyed either by means of the chain simply, or by combining this with a theodolite or some other angular instru-

ment. The several fields are divided into large triangles, of which the sides are measured by the chain; and if the exterior boundary happens to be irregular, the perpendicular distance or offset is taken at each bending. The surface of the component triangles is then computed from Prop. 29. Book VI. of the Elements of Geometry, and that of the accrescent space by Note 4. to Prop. 9. Book II. In this method the triangles should be chosen as nearly equilateral as possible; for if they be very oblique, the smallest error in the length of their sides will occasion a wide difference in the estimate of the surface. The calculation is much simpler from the application of Prop. 5. Book II. of the Elements, the base and altitude of each triangle only being measured; but that slovenly practice appears liable to great inaccuracy. The perpendicular may indeed be traced by help of the surveying cross, or more correctly by the box sextant, or the optical square, which is only the same instrument in a reduced and limited form; yet such repeated and unavoidable interruption to the progress of the work will probably more than counterbalance any advantage that might thence be gained.

The English *chain* is 22 yards, or 66 feet in length, and equivalent to four *poles;* it is hence the tenth part of a furlong, or the eightieth part of a mile. The chain is divided into a hundred links, each occupying 7.92 inches. An *acre* contains ten square chains or 100,000 links. A square mile, therefore, includes 640 acres; and this large measure is deemed sufficient, in certain rude and savage countries, as the Back Settlements of America, where vast tracts of new land are allotted merely by running lines north and south, and intersecting these by perpendiculars, at each interval of a mile.

The Scotch chain consists of 24 ells, each containing 37.069 inches, and ought therefore to have 74.138 feet for its correct length. The English acre is hence to the Scotch, in round numbers, as 11 to 14, or very nearly as the circle to its circumscribing square. But this provincial measure is gradually wearing into disuse, and already the statute acre seems to be generally adopted in the counties south of the Forth.

The usual mode of surveying a large estate, is to measure round it with the chain, and observe the angles at each turn

by means of the theodolite. But these observations would require to be made with great care. If the boundaries of the estate be tolerably regular, it may be considered as a polygon, of which the angles, being necessarily very oblique, are therefore apt to affect the accuracy of the results. It would serve to rectify the conclusions, were such angles at each station conveniently divided, and the more distant signals observed. The best method of surveying, if not always the most expeditious, undoubtedly is to cover the ground with a series of connected triangles, planting the theodolite at each angular point, and computing from some base of considerable extent, which has been selected and measured with nice attention. The labour of transporting the instrument might also in many cases be abridged, by observing at any station the bearings at once of several signals. Angles can be measured more accurately than lines, and it might therefore be desirable that surveyors would generally employ theodolites of a better construction, and trust less to the aid of the chain. I have now great satisfaction in stating, that this improved mode of practice has for several years back been gradually spreading, at least in Scotland.

The quantity of surface marked out in this way is easily computed from trigonometry. Adopting the general notation, the area of a triangle which has two sides, and their included angle known, it is evident, will be denoted by $\frac{ab}{2}.\sin C$, and the area of a triangle of which there are given all the angles and a side, is $\frac{a^2}{2}.\frac{\sin B \sin C}{\sin A}$.

34. It is easy from trigonometrical principles to determine the area of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle. Let the sides a and b contain an acute angle A, and the opposite sides c and d must contain the obtuse supplementary angle. The common base of these triangles, or diagonal of the quadrilateral figure, is hence expressed by $\sqrt{(a^2+b^2-2ab \cos A)}$, and by $\sqrt{(c^2+d^2+2cd \cos A)}$; and consequently $a^2+b^2-c^2-d^2 = 2ab \cos A+2cd \cos A$,

or $\cos A = \frac{a^2+b^2-c^2-d^2}{2ab+2cd}$. Wherefore $1+\cos A =$

$\frac{a^2+2ab+b^2-c^2+2cd-d^2}{2ab+2cd}=\frac{(a+b)^2-(c-d)^2}{2ab+2cd}$, and $1-cos A=$ $\frac{a^2-2ab+b^2-c^2-2cd-d^2}{2ab+2cd}=\frac{(a-b)^2-(c+d)^2}{2ab+cd}$; consequently by decomposition, $(1+cos A)(1-cos A)=1-cos A^2=sin A^2=$ $\frac{(a+b)^2-(c-d)^2}{2ab+2cd}.\frac{(a-b^2-(c+d)^2}{2ab+2cd}$. But the area of the quadrilateral figure, or that of its two component triangles, is $sin A\left(\frac{ab+cd}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{4}sin A(2ab+2cd)$, and therefore its square is $=$ $\frac{1}{16}sin A^2(2ab+2cd)^2$, or $\frac{1}{16}.(a+b)^2-(c-d)^2.(a-b)^2-(c+d)^2=$ $\frac{(a+b)^2-(c-d)^2}{4}.\frac{(a-b)^2-(c+d)^2}{4}=$

$$\frac{a+b+c-d}{2}.\frac{a+-c+d}{2}.\frac{a-b+c+d}{2}.\frac{-a+b+c+d}{2}.$$

Or, if s denote the semiperimeter, the square of the area will be expressed by $s-a.s-b.s-c.s-d$. If one of the sides d were supposed to vanish, the quadrilateral figure would pass into a triangle, whose area would be $s.s-a.s-b.s-c$, being the same as was before investigated.

35. LEVELLING is a delicate and important branch of general surveying. It may be performed very expeditiously by help of a large theodolite, capable of measuring with precision the vertical angle subtended by a remote object, the distance being calculated, and allowance made for the effect of the earth's convexity and the influence of refraction. But the more usual and preferable method is to employ an instrument designed for the purpose, and termed a *spirit-level*, which is accompanied by a pair of square staves, each composed of two parts that slide out into a rod of ten feet in length, every foot being divided centesimally. Levelling is distinguished into two kinds, the simple and the compound; the former, which rarely admits of application, assigns the difference of altitude by a single observation; but the latter discovers it from a combined series of observations carried along an irregular surface, the aggregate of the several descents being deducted from that of the ascents. The staves are therefore placed successively along the line of survey, at suitable intervals ac-

cording to the nature of the ground and not exceeding 400 yards, the levelling instrument being always planted nearly in the middle between them, and directed backwards to the first staff, and then forwards to the second. The difference between the heights intercepted by the back and the fore observation, must evidently give at each station the quantity of ascent or descent, and the error occasioned by the curvature of the globe may be safely overlooked, as on such short distances it will not amount at each station to the hundredth part of a foot. To discover the final result of a series of operations, or the difference of altitude between the extreme stations, the measures of the back and fore observations are all collected severally, and the excess of the latter above the former indicates the entire quantity of descent.

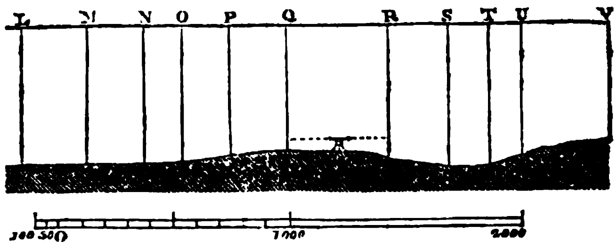
To facilitate the calculations in levelling, the rods should be marked with feet, divided into tenths and hundredth parts, instead of inches. In delicate operations likewise, the instrument should have a micrometer adapted to it, for the measuring of small vertical angles. By help of a powerful level so fitted, much tedious labour indeed might be spared.

The micrometer either marks minutes and their subdivisions, by the motion of a parallel wire in the focus of the telescope; or it consists in the simple insertion of a bar of mother of pearl, by which the angle of a degree is distinguished into 50 equal parts. But an object at the distance of 3438 times its breadth subtends the angle of a minute; or, at the distance of 2865 times the same, it occupies the 50th part of a degree. Hence, the measure of one minute, being multiplied by 3438, will give the distance; and this again multiplied by the number of intercepted minutes will express the elevation or depression of the distant point. The correction for the effect of curvature modified by refraction, it is easily shown, will be found by squaring half the measure in feet of the angle of a minute. When the micrometer scale is used, the distance will be found by multiplying the measure corresponding to one part by 2865, and the square of that measure being divided by 6 will assign the correction due to curvature and refraction.

Suppose a pole of 20 feet placed on a remote eminence subtended an angle of 2.5′ and the bottom appeared elevated 42′ above the horizon. Dividing 20 by 2.5′, gives 8 feet for the measure of a minute. The distance was therefore $8\times3438=$ 27504 feet; the height was $8\times42=336$; and the depression from curvature and refraction was the square of 4, the half of 8, or 16 feet. Whence the whole difference of level must have been $336+16=352$ feet. The same observations with the bar of mother of pearl would have been 2.1′ and 35′, from which data similar results would be obtained.

As an example of levelling, I shall take the concluding part of a survey, which my friend Mr Jardine, civil engineer, lately made for the Town-Council of Edinburgh, with a degree of accuracy seldom attempted, in tracing the descent from the Black and Crawley springs, near the summits of the Pentland chain, to the Reservoir on the Castlehill, with a view to the conducting of a fresh supply of water from those heights. To avoid unnecessary complication, however, I shall only notice the principal stations. The figure annexed represents a profile or vertical section of the ground, LV is the level of the Black spring, and the several perpendiculars from it denote the varying depth of the surface, referred to the base assumed 700 feet below. The stations marked are as follow:

L Lowest point in the Meadow.
M Cleansing cocks on the north side of the Meadow.
N Sunk fence in Lord Wemyss's garden.
O Air cock in Archibald's nursery.
P South side of Lauriston road.
Q Bottom of Heriot's Green Reservoir.
R Head of Hamilton's close.
S Strand on south side of Grassmarket.
T Cleansing cock on north side of Grassmarket.
U Gælic Chapel.
V Upper side of the belt of Castlehill Reservoir.



Stations.	Distance. Feet.	Back Observation. Feet.	Fore Observation. Feet.	Ascent. Feet.
L	—	—	—	—
M	370	4.59	2.04	2 55
N	640	8.68	3.05	8 18
O	905	9.12	2.22	15.08
P	1236	29.43	2.11	42.40
Q	1493	16.24	1.40	57 24
R	1925	2.54	26.98	32 80
S	2260	4.69	53.28	—15.79
T	2352	4.22	4.42	—15.99
U	2540	32.40	1.25	15 15
V	2705	94.77	9.97	99.95

Black spring, being 620.05 feet above the level of the Meadow, is therefore 520.1 feet higher than the belt of the reservoir. The numbers exhibited in the last column are obtained by taking the differences of the aggregates of the two preceding columns. Where the ground either sinks or rises suddenly, some intermediate observations are here grouped together into a single amount. Thus, three observations were made between O and P, two between P and Q, three between Q and R, five between R and S, three between T and U, and no fewer than nine between U and V. The slight sketch between the perpendiculars from Q and R, shows the mode of planting and directing the instrument.

While the French army occupied Egypt in 1799, a nice operation of levelling was carried across the Isthmus of Suez,

to determine the relative elevation of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. The result proved that the waters of the Red Sea are actually higher than the surface of the Mediterranean by 32 English feet and $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in spring tides, and 26 feet and $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in neap tides, or have a mean height of $29\frac{1}{2}$ feet. On the other hand it was found that the interior lakes of Natron were 25 feet below the Mediterranean. Some observations of the celebrated traveller, Baron Humboldt, make it probable that the Pacific Ocean is a few feet higher than the Atlantic.

The mode of levelling on a grand scale, or determining the heights of distant mountains, will receive illustration from the third volume of the Trigonometrical Survey, which the late General Mudge was kindly pleased to communicate to me before its publication. I shall select the largest triangle in the series, being one that connects the North of England with the Borders of Scotland. The distance of the station on Cross Fell to that on Wisp Hill, is computed at 235018.6 feet, or 44.511 miles, which, reckoning $6094\frac{1}{2}$ feet for the length of a minute near that parallel, corresponds, on the surface of the globe, to an arc of 38′ 33.7″. Wisp Hill was seen depressed 30′ 48″ from Cross Fell, which again had a depression of 2′ 31″ when viewed from Wisp Hill. The sum of these depressions is 33′ 19″, which, taken from 38′ 33.7″, the measure of the intercepted arc, or the angle at the centre, leaves 5′ 14.7″, for the joint effect of refraction at both stations. The deflection of the visual ray produced by that cause, which the French philosophers estimate in general at .079, had therefore amounted only to .06805, or a very little more than the *fifteenth* part of the intercepted arc. Hence, the true depression of Wisp Hill was 30′ 48″—16′ 39.5″=14′ 8.5″, and consequently, estimating from the given distance, it is 967 feet lower than Cross Fell.

From Wisp Hill, the top of Cheviot appeared exactly on the same level, at the distance of 185023.9 feet, or 35.0424 miles. Wherefore, two-thirds of the square of this last number, or 819, would, from the scholium at page 279, express in feet the approximate height of Cheviot above Wisp Hill. But refraction gave the mountain a more towering elevation than

it really had; and the measure being reduced in the former ratio of 38′ 33.7″ to 33′ 19″, is hence brought down to 708 feet.

Again, the distance 292012.7 feet, or 55.3054 miles, of Cross Fell from Cheviot, corresponds to an arc of 47′ 54.8″, which, reduced by the effect of refraction, would leave 41′ 23.8″ for the sum of the depressions at both stations. Consequently, Cheviot had, from Cross Fell, a true depression of only 23′ 44″—20′ 41.9″ or 3′ 2.1″, and is therefore lower than that mountain by 258 feet.

These results agree very nearly with each other. The height of Cross Fell above the level of the sea being 2901, that of Wisp Hill is 1934, and that of Cheviot 2642 or 2643. In the Trigonometrical Survey, the latter heights are stated at 1940 and 2658; a difference of small moment, owing to a balance of errors, or perhaps the adoption of some other *data* with respect to horizontal refraction, which do not appear on record.

From the same valuable work, I am tempted to borrow another example, which has more local interest. From Lumsdane Hill, the north top of Largo Law, at the distance of 189240.1 feet, or 35.84 miles, appeared sunk 9′ 32″ below the horizon. Here the intercepted arc is 31′ 3″, and the effect of the earth's curvature, modified by refraction, is 13′ 24.8″; whence the true elevation of Largo Law was 13′ 24.8″—9′ 32″, or 3′ 52.8″, which makes it 213 feet higher than Lumsdane Hill, or 938 feet above the level of the sea. In the Trigonometrical Survey, this height is stated at 952; but I am inclined to prefer the former number, having once found it by a barometrical measurement, in weather not indeed the most favourable, to be only 935 feet.

Through the kindness of Captain Colby of the Royal Engineers, who has for several years so ably conducted the survey under the direction of Colonel Mudge, I am enabled to subjoin some more examples, from the observations made last season. From Dunrich Hill the station on Cross Fell appeared depressed 19′ 21″, at the distance of 349,343 feet or 66.1634 miles. This corresponds on the same parallel to an intercepted arc of 57′ 19″; the half of which, diminished by one-twelfth of the whole, gives 23′ 53″, for the effect of curvature modified by

refraction. Cross Fell had therefore an elevation of 4′ 32″, the excess of 23′ 53″ above 19′ 21″, which, at the given distance, makes it to be 461 feet higher than Dunrich Hill. Consequently, the altitude of Dunrich Hill above the level of the sea is 2901—461, or 2440 feet. This altitude, determined from nearer bases, was only 2421 feet.

Again, from Cairnsmuir upon Deugh, at the height of 2597 feet above the sea, the top of Ben-Lomond appeared with a depression of 18′ 24″, the distance being nearly 352,004 feet, or 66.6673 miles. The intercepted arc on the earth's surface was hence 57′ 45½″, and the effect of curvature, as modified by refraction, 24′ 4″. Wherefore, R : *tan* 6′ 40″, the real elevation : : 352,004 : 580, which, added to 2597, gives 177 for the altitude of Ben-Lomond.

I shall select another example, which affords an approximation to the diameter of our globe. From the station at the Observatory on the Calton-hill, at the altitude of 350 feet, the horizon of the sea was found depressed 18′ 12″. But refraction being supposed to have diminished the effect by one-twelfth part, if the eleventh part be added of this remaining quantity, there will result 19′ 51¼″ for the true measure of depression. The angle at the centre is consequently the half of 19′ 51¼″ or 9′ 55⅝″; wherefore, *sin* 9′ 55⅝″ : R ; : 350 : 121,205 feet, or 22.9555 miles, the distance at which the extreme visual ray grazes the sea. Again, *sin* 19′ 51¼″ : R : : 22.9555 : 3975 miles, the radius of the earth, the double of which, or 7950, is a near approximation to the real measure, or 7912. It should be noticed, that the state of the tide would have some effect in modifying the angle of depression. Thus, on the 12th May 1816, at 7¼ p. m. the depression towards the mouth of the Firth of Forth, between the Isle of May and the Bass Rock, was found to be 18′ 14″; but it was 18′ 16″ in a direction more to the north and near the Fife coast, because the sea had ebbed nearly five hours, the current outwards running first along the northern shore. On the following day, at three quarters after twelve o'clock, and therefore two hours and a half before high water, the depression about the middle of the Firth was 18′ 9″, and only 18′ 6″ on the northern shore, the tide then flowing up principally in the middle of the channel.

35. MARITIME SURVEYING is of a mixed nature: It not only determines the positions of the remarkable headlands, and other conspicuous objects that present themselves along the vicinity of a coast, but likewise ascertains the situation of the various inlets, rocks, shallows and soundings which occur in approaching the shore. To survey a new or inaccessible coast, two boats are moored at a proper interval, which is carefully measured on the surface of the water; and from each boat the bearings of all the prominent points of land are taken by means of an azimuth compass, or the angles subtended by these points and the other boat are measured by a Hadley's sextant. Having now on paper drawn the base to any scale, straight lines radiating from each end at the observed angles, as in Prop. 21. of the Trigonometry, will by their intersections give the positions of the several points from which the coast may be sketched.—But a chart is more accurately constructed, by combining a survey made on land, with observations taken on the water. A smooth level piece of ground is chosen, on which a base of considerable length is measured out, and station staves are fixed at its extremities. If no such place can be found, the mutual distance and position of two points conveniently situate for planting the staves, though divided by a broken surface, are determined from one or more triangles, which connect with a shorter and temporary base assumed near the beach. A boat then explores the offing, and at every rock, shallow, or remarkable sounding, the bearings of the station staves are noticed. These observations furnish so many triangles, from which the situation of the several points are easily ascertained.—When a correct map of the coast can be procured, the labour of executing a maritime survey is materially shortened. From each notable point of the surface of the water, the bearings of two known objects on the land are taken, or the intermediate angles subtended by three such objects are observed. In the first case, those various points have their situations ascertained by Prop. 21. and the second case by Prop. 25. of the Trigonometry. To facilitate the last construction, an instrument called the *Station-Pointer* has been invented, consisting of three brass rulers, which open and set at the given angles.

36. The boldest and most important application of Trigonometry, was to measure the surface of our globe. The solution of this delicate problem, which forms the very basis of geographical science, was one of the earliest efforts of the Alexandrian School. Eratosthenes, a man of genius and almost universal attainments, who died nearly 200 years before the Christian æra, made the first appeal to direct observation. He found that the sun, in passing the meridian at the summer solstice, shone down perpendicularly to the bottom of a deep pit at Syene, close to Thebes in Upper Egypt, and almost exactly south from Alexandria. On a corresponding day, he measured the sun's altitude at the Museum, by means of the shadow of a style or gnomon fixed in a plane, and ascertained the intercepted arc to be the 50th part of a circle. But the distance between Syene and Alexandria, as determined by the repeated operations of the royal surveyors, was 5000 stadia; which gives 50 × 5000, or 250,000 stadia, for the circumference of the earth.

Posidonius of Phrygia, the intimate friend of Cicero, and a person of very extensive learning, attempted, about half a century afterwards, to rectify the estimation of Eratosthenes. He remarked, that the bright star Canopus grazed along the horizon at Rhodes, but mounted at Alexandria to the height of the 48th part of a circle. The distance between those two places being reckoned 5000 stadia, would make the circuit of the earth to be 240,000 stadia. These different estimates, however, are lost to us, since we are not informed what sort of stadium was employed, and are left to suspect that a fictitious measure had been adopted, for the sake of even numbers.

The Arabians were more diligent observers than the Greeks. The Calif Almamon, a zealous and enlightened patron of science, undertook to determine correctly the magnitude of the earth. For this purpose, an extensive plain, called Singiar, was chosen in Mesopotamia, and a company of Mathematicians, divided into two parties, with measuring rods in their hands, traced out a base in the direction of the meridian line, the one troop advancing towards the north, and the other to the south, till each found the change of latitude amount to a degree. It was hence determined that a degree on the surface of our globe

is equal to $56\frac{2}{3}$ miles, each of them containing 4000 cubits. But the difficulty lies in discovering the value of the cubit employed. If we suppose it equivalent to $19\frac{1}{2}$ English inches, a very nice agreement would result. The distances, however, being uniformly expressed in round numbers, it seems almost demonstrable that the standard measures among the ancients were founded on actual observation.

It is curious to remark, that the Arabian cubit must have approached extremely near to 19.6855 inches, half the French *metre*, or unit of the new system of measures, which is derived from the same source. According to the mensuration performed in Mesopotamia, the quadrant of the earth contains $90 \times 56\frac{2}{3}$, or 5100 Arabian miles, or 20,400,000 cubits; but the French, as we have seen, divide that arc into 10,000,000 metres, of which 1000 make the centesimal minute, 100 of these the new degree, and 100 of these again complete the quadrant. Had the Arabians estimated the degree at $55\frac{5}{9}$ of their miles, the coincidence between the cubit and the demimetre would have been perfect.

It may seem strange that men should have continued, through a long tract of ages, in this unsatisfactory state with regard to an object of such peculiar interest as the dimensions of the globe which they inhabit. But the art of navigation was entirely changed—new continents of vast extent had been discovered, and the most remote regions explored ;—and nations had eagerly rushed into the career of commercial enterprise, long before the measurement of the earth was resumed. Near the middle of the sixteenth century, the famous Fernel, physician to Henry II. of France, proceeded in a carriage from Paris on the road to Amiens, which lies almost due north, and reckoned the distance that corresponds to the difference of a degree of latitude by the number of revolutions of the wheel. He thence inferred the length of a degree to be 56,746 toises, or 362,874 English feet. About a century afterwards, Richard Norwood, a teacher of navigation, had the courage to measure the distance from London to York with a chain, noticing the inflexions of the road with a compass, and sometimes pacing the shorter intervals. Having found, with a sector of five feet radius, the difference of latitude of those two cities to

be 2°.28′, he thence concluded that a degree of the terrestrial meridian is 367,176 feet. These are both very near approximations to the truth; but, from the imperfection of the method employed, they can be considered as little better than fortunate guesses.

Kepler, whose excursive genius took a wide range, proposed to measure a degree of the meridian, by finding the distance between two remote objects, and observing their mutual depressions; which would obviously give the angle that the intercepted arc subtends at the centre of the earth. This method was afterwards carried into execution by Riccioli. But as it involves the effects of horizontal refraction, it is not susceptible of any great accuracy. The example which we give in note 34. may be considered as only a simpler case of the same method.

It was in Holland, soon after the glorious struggle for liberty and independence had aroused every faculty of the soul, and created an impulsion, which led succeeding generations to excel alike in arts and commerce and in literature and science, that the first measurement of the earth, on right principles, or by triangulation, was performed. Willebrord Snell, teacher of mathematics, and a man of genius, invention and learning, conducted that arduous undertaking at his own charge. In the year 1617, he began by measuring a base along the meadows between Leyden and the village of Soeterwoud, employing the Rynland perch of 12 feet in length; but, for the facility of calculation, he divided it into 10 feet, and each of these into 10 inches. From this base, which was 326.4.3 perches, according to his notation, he determined trigonometrically the mutual distances of all the remarkable towers and steeples in Holland, by a series of connected triangles. For observing the angles, he used an iron quadrant overlaid with brass, and five feet and a half in radius; and he complains of the excessive fatigue in transporting that ponderous instrument, and directing it to the different objects. With an amiable feeling, he selected for a base of verification the plain beside Oudewater, his native village, which contained the bones of his parents, and takes occasion to give a pa-

thetic recital of the horrible atrocities committed by the Spaniards on the capture of that devoted place. He computed the whole meridional distance from Alcmaer to Bergen-op-zoom to be 33978.1 perches, corresponding to a difference of latitude of 1°.11½′; and the distance from Alcmaer to Leyden, only 14204, the difference of latitude being 30′. He concluded, therefore, that the length of a degree, expressed in round numbers, was 28,500 Rynland feet.

These calculations were printed by Snell, that same year, in his *Eratosthenes Batavus*, a work of great merit and research. Among other ingenious problems, it contains an investigation of the position of a point, from which the angles subtended by three known objects are observed,—a proposition, as we have seen, of vast importance in maritime surveying, and commonly referred to a period half a century later. The solution given is nearly the same as was derived in the text from the theory of *Loci*. But in his operations, the Dutch philosopher had to contend with many difficulties: his quadrant had only plain sights; for neither the micrometer nor the telescope was yet invented. His computations were also laboriously made; for Napier had just published the noble system of logarithms, and some time elapsed before they came into general use.

Snell afterwards detected some errors which had crept into his computations, and he therefore seized the first opportunity of revising and reforming the various measurements. In the latter part of the year 1621, all the low grounds about Leyden were flooded; and a very severe winter having followed, the whole surface became converted into one sheet of ice. On this level plain a new base was traced, and the distance of the tower of Leyden to that of the village of Soeterwoud ascertained trigonometrically to be 1097.117 perches. The connecting triangles were extended as far as Mechlin; and from these more precise data, Snell corrected his results, which he designed for publication, when he was snatched away in the midst of his meritorious labours by a premature death. The papers containing his observations and calculations lay neglected for the space of an hundred years, till his countryman, Professor Musschenbrock, inspected and revised the whole,

He hence concluded, that the meridional distance of Alcmaer from Bergen-op-zoom is 34326.7 perches, corresponding to a difference of latitude of 1°. 9′. 47″. This gives 29514.2 perches, or 57033.08 French *toises* for the length of a degree; thus approaching very nearly to the truth.

The Academy of Sciences at Paris signalized its institution by directing the accurate measurement of a degree. This operation was executed with every advantage in the years 1669 and 1670, by Picard, who now made the capital improvement of adapting a telescope with cross wires in the focus to his quadrant. He measured a base of 5663 *toises*, or about 6 English miles in length; and found, by a chain of triangles, the meridional distance between Amiens and Malvoisine to be 78,850 *toises*; the difference of latitude being ascertained, from the passage of a star in *Cassiopeia*, to amount to 1° 22′ 55″. It hence followed, that the length of a degree is 57,060 toises, or 364,880 English feet.

This measurement suggested the magnificent project of constructing a geometrical map of France. It was begun in 1680 under the patronage of the patriotic minister Colbert; afterwards repeatedly interrupted; resumed in 1700, but not completed until 1716. These operations gave the anomalous result, that the mean length of a degree on the meridian south from Paris was 57,092 *toises*, and north from that city only 56,960;—a result quite at variance with the opinion of the oblate figure of the earth, which Huygens and Newton had inferred from the action of centrifugal force. It would have indeed followed, that the form of the earth is very oblong, the polar axis being to the equatorial diameter as 96 to 95. But, notwithstanding other transverse measurements by Cassini in 1733 and 1734, the English and Dutch mathematicians still persisted in denying the conclusion, and maintained, that the discrepancy from theory was owing to some inaccuracies committed in a triangulation of insufficient range. It was therefore proposed to transfer the scene of operations to a distant clime, and obtain a wider contrast, by measuring the length of a degree under the equator itself. In 1735 the French academicians, Bouguer, Condamine, and Godin, sailed

to Carthagena, where they met with Juan and Ulloa, their Spanish coadjutors; and having proceeded across the Isthmus of Panama, they embarked for the coast of Peru, and arrived, in March 1736, at Quito, the destined centre of their laborious mensuration, which consumed several successive years. Three distinct bases were traced from 5 to upwards of 6 miles in length, and these connected, over an extent of about 200 miles, by a web of triangles with the snowy summits along the great chain of the Andes. Every delicacy in the art of observation was carefully practised. The meridional distance between the extreme stations being 176,940 *toises*, the intercepted celestial arc was found, from the passage of ε *Orionis*, to be 3° 7′ 1″. The mean length of a degree under the equator, and reduced to the level of the sea, was hence fixed at 56,750 *toises*, or 362,897 English feet; which falling so much below the measure assigned by Picard in France, established decisively the oblateness of the earth.

The result, however, was unknown in Europe, till the return of Bouguer in June 1744. It was afterwards published with all the details in the *Figure de la Terre*,—a work distinguished by its originality, depth, and geometrical elegance. But the Academy of Sciences at Paris had already anticipated the conclusion. In the summer of 1736, Maupertuis, accompanied by Clairaut, Camus, and Monnier, had sailed to the bottom of the Gulf of Bothnia, where they found Professor Celsius of Upsal, and immediately proceeded to measure the length of a degree in Lapland. In the space of two months, they established a series of triangles along the heights from Tornea to Kittis; and on the approach of winter, a base of about 8 miles, which they measured along the frozen surface of the river Muonio. A meridional distance of 55,623¼ *toises* was thus found to correspond to an intercepted arc of 57′ 28″; and consequently the length of a degree, in the parallel of 66°, must amount to 57,437 *toises*, or 367,288 English feet. Such a very considerable augmentation of the measure determined by Picard in France, clearly attested the great oblateness of the earth's figure; and the decision of a question so curious and

important, finally secured the reception of the Newtonian Philosophy on the Continent.

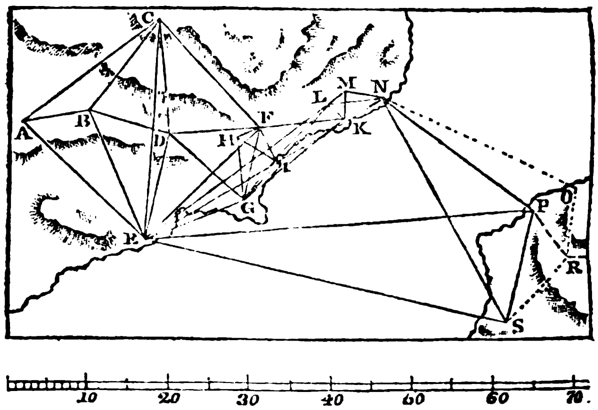
Maupertuis and his companions, on their return from the Polar Circle, likewise rectified the observations made between Paris and Amiens, and discovered the length of a degree to be 57,183 *toises*, or 365,666 English feet. Other rectifications were effected by the grandson of Cassini, about the year 1740, in the trigonometrical survey of France; and though some trifling anomalies occurred, the results on the whole were found to agree with mathematical theory.

Since these great and persevering operations of the French Academicians, other measurements have been performed in various parts of the earth's surface. It will suffice, however, to notice only the chief results. In 1782, La Caille found out a degree at the Cape of Good Hope in 33° 18′ south latitude to be 57,037 *toises*, or 364,733 English feet. In 1753, the famous Boscovich determined a degree, in the Papal Territory between Rome and Rimini, in the latitude of 43°, to be 56,973 *toises*, or 364,323 English feet. Mason and Dixon ascertained, in 1768, the length of a degree in Pennsylvania, at the latitude of 39° 12′, to be 363780 feet. In 1777, Beccaria found a degree in Piedmont, under the parallel of 44° 44′, to correspond to 57,024 *toises*, or 364,650 English feet. In 1799 and 1800, the measurement of Maupertuis in Lapland was rectified by Svanberg. But the most recent mensuration was made in India, during the years 1803 and 1806, by Colonel Lambton, who carried a series of triangles over an extent of five degrees near Madras, and determined a degree, on the parallel of 9° 35′, to be 362,838, and on the parallel of 12° 32′ to be 362,964.

37. THE nice art of observing has in its progress kept pace with the improved skill displayed in the construction of instruments. Surveys on a vast scale have lately been performed in Europe, with that refined accuracy which seems to mark the perfection of science. After the conclusion of the American war, a memoir of Count Cassini de Thury was transmitted by the French Government to our Court, stating the important advantages which would accrue to astronomy and navigation, if the difference between the meridians of the observations of Green-

wich and Paris were ascertained by actual measurement. A spirit of accommodation and concert fortunately then prevailed. Orders were speedily given for carrying the plan into execution; and General Roy, who was charged with the conduct of the business on this side of the Channel, proceeded with activity and zeal. In the summer of 1784, a fundamental base, rather more than five miles in length, was traced on Hounslow Heath, about 54 feet above the level of the sea, and measured with every precaution, by means of deal rods, glass tubes, and a steel chain, allowance being made for the effects of the variable heat of the atmosphere in expanding those materials. The same line was, seven years afterwards, remeasured with an improved chain, which yet gave a difference on the whole of only three inches. The mean result, or 27404.2 feet, at the temperature of 62° by Fahrenheit's scale, is therefore assumed as the true length of the base. Connected with this line, and commencing from Windsor Castle, a series of thirty-two primary triangles was, in 1787 and 1788, extended to Dover and Hastings, on the coast of Kent and Sussex. Two triangles more stretched across the Channel. The horizontal and vertical angles at each station were taken with singular accuracy by a theodolite, which the celebrated artist Ramsden had, after much delay, constructed, of the largest dimensions and the most exquisite workmanship. At the same period, a new base of verification was measured on Romney Marsh, 15¾ feet above the sea, and found, after various reductions, to be 28535.6773 feet in length. This base, computed from the nearest chain of triangles dependent on that of Hounslow Heath, ought to have been 28533.3; differing scarcely more than two feet on a distance of eighty miles. The mean, or 28534.5, is adopted for calculating the adjacent and subsequent triangles. These triangles near the coast were unavoidably confined and oblique; but their sides are generally deduced from larger and more regular triangles, expanding over the interior of the country. The annexed figure exhibits the most interesting portion of this memorable survey, and represents the various combination of triangles. Attached to it is a scale of English miles.

A Frant Church.
B Goodhurst Church.
C Hollingborn Hill.
D Tenterden Church.
E Fairlight Down.
F Allington Knoll.
G Lydd Church.
H Ruckinge.
I High Nook.
K Folkstone Turnpike.
L Padlesworth.
M Swingfield Church.
N Dover Castle.
O Church at Calais.
P Blancnez Signal.
R Fiennes Signal.
S Montlambert Signal.
KL *The base of verification.*



Calculation of the sides of the Triangles.

		ACE					BDE		
A	79°	23′	2″	141744.4	B	49°	39′	35.77″	71637.2
C	52	11	3 *	113926	D	94	59	25.81	93629.2
E	48	25	55	107895.7	E	35	20	58.42	——
		ABC					CDF		
A	27	4	36.13	71298.5	C	40	0	58.96 *	61777.5
B	136	27	35.87	——	D	91	34	22.04	96039.8
C	16	27	48 *	44391.2	F	48	24	39	——
		ABE					DFG		
A	52°	18′	25.87″	93629.2	D	43	45	23.18	47850.9
B	105	39	28.86	——	F	73	0	27	66169.2
E	22	2	5.27	——	G	68	14	9.82 *	——
		BCD					DEG		
B	68	13	19.5	71887.5	D	62	32	52.51	71692.2
C	44	38	44.04 *	54376.5	E	54	59	17.31	——
D	67	7	56.46	——	G	62	27	50.18 *	71637.2

			EFG					KLM	
E	21	18	37 *	47850.9	K	60	27	39.5	17056.6
F	32	59	23	——	L	70	54	5.5	18525.8
G	125	42	0	106926.2	M	48	38	15	——
			FGI					KMN	
F	33	48	46.1	31363.7	K	69	43	53.5	30560.4
G	24	17	29.9 *	23185.7	M	75	36	40	31555.7
I	121	53	44	——	N	34	39	26.5	——
			FHI					KLN	
F	91	27	19.5	28534.5	K	130	11	33	42562.7
H	54	19	18.5	——	L	34	29	42.5	——
I	34	13	22	16053	N	15	18	44.5	——
			FGK					ELN	
F	109	50	39.35	84662.8	E	6	6	39.43	——
G	38	2	33.76	55463.6	L	152	15	25.15	186119
K	32	6	56.89 *	——	N	21	37	55.42 *	——
			EGL					ENP	
E	13	38	2.95 *	79536.1	E	25	33	55.02 *	116660
G	154	5	54.4	14739.2	N	110	55	29.88 *	252505.6
L	12	16	2.65	——	P	43	30	35.15 *	——
			FIK					ENS	
F	76°	1′	53.25″	54708	E	43	19	58.52	168827
I	79	41	0.5	——	N	87	30	29.58	245786
K	24	17	6.25	——	S	49	9	31.9	——
			IKL					NPS	
I	14	44	25.5 *	14714.3	N	23	25	0.25	77237.2
K	57	2	0	48305.2	P	119	41	41.64	——
L	108	9	3.5	——	S	36	53	18.11	——

In this register, each angle in the successive triangles is, for the sake of conciseness, marked by the single letter affixed to it, and the computed length of its opposite side in feet ranges in the same line. The addition of an asterisk denotes that an angle was not actually observed, but only deduced from calculation. The oblique triangles ABC and ABE have their sides BC and BE derived from other larger triangles, which were nearly equiangular. The triangles ELN and ENP had their angles discovered from conjoined observations. In ge-

the *metre* by the diminution of a four millionth part, making this to be 443.322 lines of the *toise* brought by the Academicians from Peru. The meridional arc extending from Dunkirk to Formentera, measures 12° 22′ 13.395″; and from this ample basis, the circumference of the earth is computed to be 24855.42 English miles, and the ratio of its axes that of 308 to 309.

The fourth volume of the *Base Metrique*, containing the account of the trigonometrical observations made by Biot and Arago in Spain and the Balearic Isles, has been long promised; and I was induced, for a considerable time, to defer the publication of this edition, in the hope of being able to draw some additional information from such a valuable source. In the prosecution, however, of the French measurement, an application from the Institute was transmitted by Count Laplace to General Mudge, to have Ramsden's Zenith Sector erected near Yarmouth, in order to connect the English arc thence across the sea to near Dunkirk, with the meridional measurement extending through France and Spain to Formentera, which would have the important advantage of being nearly bisected by the parallel of 45°. This proposition, I am happy to say, has been already partly carried into effect under the able direction of M. Arago.

In England, the prosecution of the Trigonometrical Survey, without aiming at such splendid views, has, suitably to the genius of the people, been directed to objects of more domestic interest, and perhaps real utility and importance. The perplexing inaccuracy of our best maps and charts had long been the subject of most serious complaint. It was in consequence resolved to extend the series of connecting triangles over the whole surface of the Island. But the death of General Roy, happening so early as 1790, threatened to prove fatal to the completion of his favourite scheme, for which the talents and experience he possessed had so eminently fitted him. After some interruption, however, an opportunity was embraced of resuming that noble plan; and it was, under the direction of the Board of Ordnance, committed to the care of Colonel Mudge, who, with equal ability and undiminished ardour, during the space of five and twenty years, was engaged in carrying on the most extensive and varied system of ope-

rations ever attempted, and in a style of execution which reflected on him the highest credit. In 1793 and 1794, the chain of primary triangles was continued from Shooter's Hill to Dunnose in the Isle of Wight, including a great part of Surry, Sussex, Hants, Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, and connecting with a new base of verification measured on Salisbury Plain. This base had, after correction, a length of 36574.4 feet, or 6.92697 miles, having lost almost a whole foot in being reduced from an elevation of 588 feet to the level of the sea. It differed scarcely an inch from the computation founded on the base of Hounslow Heath. In 1795, the triangles were carried into Devonshire; and they were continued in 1796 through Cornwall to the Scilly Islands. The West of England became the scene of repeated operations. In 1798, a third base was measured on King's Sedgemoor near Somerton, and found, after various corrections, to be 27,680 feet, or 5.242425 miles, differing only about a foot from the result of the calculation dependent on that of Salisbury Plain. The survey now advanced to the centre of England, and was extended in 1803 to Clifton in Yorkshire; another base of verification, 26342.7 feet in length, having been measured at Misterton Carr, on the north of Lincolnshire. The triangles were next carried towards Wales, and made to rest on a base of 24514.26 feet, stretching from the western borders of Flintshire to Llandulas in Denbighshire. From this last base, numerous triangles have been extended in different directions; one series bending through Anglesea and by Cardigan Bay, to the Bristol Channel; another penetrating into the central parts of England; while a third series stretches northwards, through Lancashire, Cumberland and Westmoreland, into Scotland, and uniting with the collateral chain of Misterton Carr from Yorkshire and Northumberland, is prolonged to the heights immediately beyond the Firth of Forth. The mountains and islands near the western coast of Scotland will furnish triangles of vast extent. The surveyors will not omit, we hope, the opportunities that such stations may afford to determine the quantity of horizontal refraction, noting at the same time the variable state of the atmosphere. The indications of the hygrometer would then require attention. It would be desirable in all cases, as in the French operations, that the third angle of each

triangle were actually measured. It would likewise be satisfactory, in the more mountainous tracts, that the barometer should always accompany the theodolite.

The triangulation has been extended along the east coast of Scotland as far as the county of Banff and the borders of Ross-shire. It has also been carried towards the same points from Cumberland, through the heights of Galloway and Dumfries-shire, to the summit of Ben-Lomond; and from Dumbartonshire and the vicinity of Glasgow in a north-easterly direction, connecting all the remarkable mountains of Perthshire. The sands of Belhelvie, a few miles westward of Aberdeen, the spot formerly pointed out by General Roy, has been selected for a base of verification, which Captain Colby measured in the summer of 1817. It would no doubt be very desirable to have another intermediate base determined nearer the west side of the island. For this purpose, the plain between Kinniel and Carron, in the Carse of Falkirk, might seem eligible. In 1817, M. Biot, assisted by General Mudge and his son, made experiments with the pendulum at Leith Fort. He afterwards transported his apparatus to the Shetland isles, in conjunction with the English astronomers, and repeated his observations in that extreme station. The summer of 1818 proved uncommonly favourable, and the survey was accordingly pushed forward by Captain Colby with uncommon spirit. The operations were begun at Largo Law, then transferred to the Lomond Hills, next to Benclach in the centre of the Ochils, and thence to Ben-Lomond and other mountains on the western side of the island. The accidental clearness of the atmosphere allowed very distant objects to be seen. Some of the triangles thus formed had sides exceeding 100 miles in length.

Besides the principal triangles, a multitude of subordinate ones were ascertained in the progress of the survey, which serve to connect all the remarkable objects over the face of the country. The capital points were hence established, for constructing the most accurate charts and provincial maps. A number of royal military surveyors, of approved skill, have since been constantly employed in filling up the secondary triangles, and embodying the skeleton plans. The various materials are collected at the drawing-room of the

Tower, and there adjusted, reduced and combined. Under the same able direction, an extensive establishment has been formed in those spacious apartments, where a voluminous series of maps, on the largest scale, are not only delineated but engraved. This truly national work advances with great activity, and has already proved highly advantageous to the public service. The Ordnance Maps, in elaborate accuracy, and even beauty of execution, surpass every thing hitherto designed.

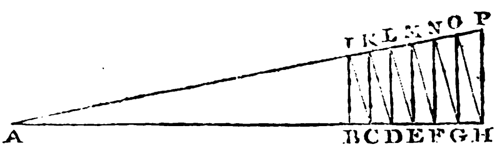
The publication of these valuable geographical details, after having been suspended for some years, is again free. Five parts have already appeared, including Devonshire, Essex, Sussex, Dorsetshire, Kent, the Isle of Wight, Hampshire and Cornwall. Other maps are in a state of great forwardness, as far northward as the parallel from Caernarvon through Shrewsbury and Warwick to twenty miles beyond Boston in Lincolnshire. The completion of a work of such vast magnitude must require proportional time and perseverance. The maritime counties will probably be first given to the public, and the districts of the interior afterwards delivered.

For a concise and perspicuous exemplification of all the refinements adopted in the practice of trigonometrical surveying, I have much satisfaction in referring to the late work of Baron Zach *sur l'Attraction des Montagnes;* nor can I omit this opportunity of testifying my respect and regard for that able and very learned astronomer, in whose interesting society I made a delightful excursion, in the month of August 1814, from Lyons by Orange to Vaucluse, and thence by Avignon to Marseilles, where he was then residing, as chamberlain to her Highness the Duchess Dowager of Saxe-Gotha.

38. To determine geometrically the altitude of a mountain requires, it hence appears, a nice operation performed with some large instrument. The barometrical mensuration of heights is therefore, in most cases, preferred, as much easier and often more exact. This curious application was early suggested, by the objections themselves which ignorance opposed to Torricelli's immortal discovery of the weight of our atmosphere. But more than a century elapsed before the improvements in mechanics had completely adapted the machine to that purpose, and experiment combined with observation had ascer-

tained the proper corrections. Barometers of various constructions are now made quite portable, and which indicate with the utmost precision the height of the mercurial column supported by the pressure of the atmosphere.

The air which invests our globe, being a fluid extremely compressible, must have its lower portions always rendered denser by the weight of the incumbent mass. To discover the law that connects the densities with the heights in the atmosphere, it is only requisite, therefore, to apply the fact which experiment has established,—that the elasticity counterbalancing the pressure is exactly proportioned to the density. The elasticity of the air at any point of elevation, is hence measured by a column possessing the same uniform density, with a certain constant altitude. Let AB denote the height of this equiponderant column, and the perpendicular BI its density; and suppose the mass of air below to be distinguished into numerous *strata*, having each the same thickness BC. It is evident that the weight of the minute *stratum* at B will be expressed by BC; whence AB is to AC, or BI to CK, as the pressure at B to the augmented pressure at C, and therefore the density at C is denoted by CK. Again, having joined IC,



and drawn KD parallel, BI : CK : : BC : CD; and consequently CD will, on the same scale of density, express the weight of the stratum at C. Hence, AC is to AD, as CK to DL, or as the density at C is to that at D. It thus appears, that, repeating this process, the densities BI, CK, DL, &c. of the successive *strata* form a continued geometrical progression. But the same relation will evidently obtain at equal though sensible intervals. Thus, the density of the atmosphere is reduced nearly to one half, for every 3½ miles of perpendicular ascent. At 7 miles in height, the corresponding density is one-fourth; at 10½ miles, one-eighth; and at 14 miles, one-sixteenth.

The difference of altitude between two points in the atmosphere, is hence proportional to the difference of the logarithms of the corresponding densities or vertical pressures. But the heights of mountains may be computed from barometrical measurement to any degree of exactness, by a simple numerical approximation. Since AB, AC, AD, &c. are continued proportionals, it follows that AB : BC :: AB+AC+AD, &c.; BC+CD+DE, &c. or BH. Let n denote the number of sections or *strata* contained in the mass of air, and $\frac{n}{2}$ (AB+AH) will nearly express the sum of the progression AB, AC, AD, &c.; wherefore, AB+AH : BH :: 2AB : nBC, or the absolute difference of altitude. The height AB of the equiponderant column, reduced to the temperature of freezing water, is nearly 26,000 feet; and hence this general rule,—*As the sum of the mercurial columns is to their difference, so is the constant number 52,000 to the approximate height.* This number is the more easily remembered, from the division of the year into weeks.

Two corrections depending on the variation of temperature are besides required. 1. Mercury expands about the 5,000th part of its bulk, for each degree of the centigrade scale; and hence *the small addition to the upper column will be found, by removing the decimal point four places to the left, and multiplying by twice the difference between the degrees of the attached thermometers.* 2. But the correction afterwards applied to the principal computation is of more consequence. Air has its volume increased by one 250th part, for each degree of heat on the same scale. *If, therefore, the approximate height, having its decimal point shifted back three places, be multiplied by twice the sum of the degrees on the detached thermometers, the product will give the addition to be made.* If it were worth while to allow for the effect of centrifugal force in diminishing the pressure of the aërial column, this will be easily done before the last multiplication takes place, by adding to twice the degrees on the detached thermometers the *fifth part of the mean temperature corresponding to the latitude.*

An example will elucidate the whole process. In August 1775, General Roy observed the barometer on Caernarvon Quay at 30.091 inches, the attached thermometer being 15°.7,

and the detached 15°.6 centigrade, while on the Peak of Snowdon the barometer stood at 26.409, the attached thermometer marking 10°.0, and the detached 8°.8. Here, twice the difference of the attached thermometers is 11°.4, which multiplied into .00264 gives .030, for the correction of the upper barometer. Next, 30.091 + 26.439 : 30.091 + 26.439, or 56.530 : 3.652 : : 52000 : 3359. Again, twice the sum of the degrees marked on the detached thermometers is 48.8, which multiplied into 3.359 gives 164; wherefore, the true height of Snowdon above the Quay of Caernarvon is 3359+164, or 3523 feet. The correction for centrifugal force is only 7 feet more.

This mode of approximation may be deemed sufficiently near, for any heights which occur in this island; but greater accuracy is attained by assuming intermediate measures. To illustrate this, I shall select another example. At the very period when General Roy was making his barometrical observations at home, Sir George Shuckburgh Evelyn found the barometer to stand at 24.167 on the summit of the Mole, an insulated mountain near Geneva, the attached and detached thermometers indicating 14°.4 and 13°.4, while they marked 16°.3 and 17°.4 at a cabin below and only 672 feet above the lake, the altitude of the barometer at this station being 28.132. Now, $3.8\times.0024=.009$, and $24.167+009=24.176$; the arithmetical mean between which and 28.132 is 26.154; and hence, separately, 50.330 : 1.978 : : 52000 : 2044, and 54.286 : 1.978 : : 52000 : 1895. Wherefore, joining these two parts, 2044+1895, or 3939 expresses the approximate height. The final correction is $61.6\times 3.939=243$, or 254 feet, if allowance be made for the effect of centrifugal force, and consequently the Mole has its summit elevated 4865 feet above the lake of Geneva, and 6063 above the level of the sea.

In general, let A and A + nb denote the correct lengths of the columns of mercury at the upper and the lower stations; the approximate height of the mountain will be expressed by

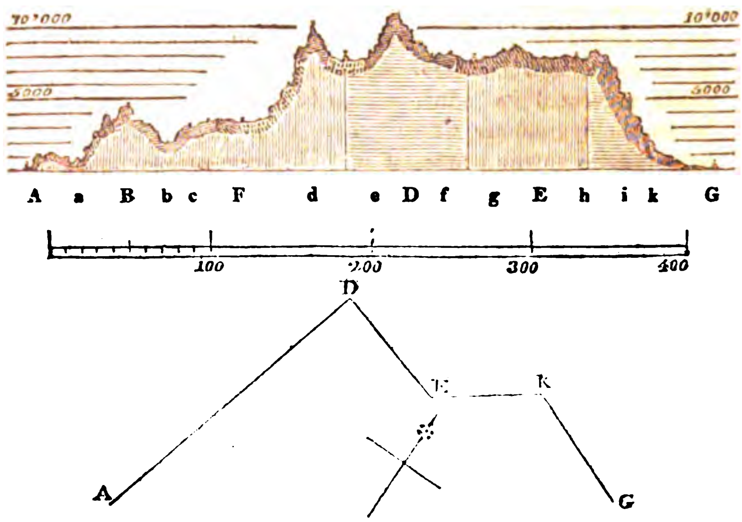
$$\left(\frac{b}{2A+b}+\frac{b}{2A+3b}+\frac{b}{2A+5b}\dots+\frac{b}{2A+\overline{2n-1}.b}\right) 52000.$$

If n were assumed a large number, the result would approach to the accuracy of a logarithmic computation, though such an extreme degree of precision will be scarcely ever wanted.

To expedite the calculation of heights from barometrical observations, I have now caused Mr Cary, optician in London, to make for sale a sliding-rule, of an easy and commodious construction. That small instrument, which should be accompanied with a barometer of the lightest and most portable kind, will be found very useful to mineralogical travellers who have occasion to explore mountainous tracts. Nothing could tend more to correct our ideas of physical geography, than to have the principal heights in all countries measured, at least with some tolerable degree of precision. The elasticity of air is affected by moisture as well as heat, although the want of an exact instrument for measuring the former has hitherto prevented its influence from being distinctly noticed. When the hygrometer which I have invented shall become better known to the public, it may not seem presumptuous to expect, in due time, more correct *data* concerning the modifications of the atmosphere. Yet, after all, in ascertaining the volume of a fluid subject to incessant fluctuation, it would be preposterous to look for that consummate harmony which belongs exclusively to astronomical science; nor can I help considering the introduction of some late refinements into the *formulæ* for measuring heights by the barometer, which would embrace the minutest anomalies of atmospheric pressure, as rather a waste of the powers of calculation.

The elevation of any place above the sea may be ascertained very nearly, from the comparison of even very distant barometrical observations, especially during the steady weather of the finer climates. In the summer of 1814, Engelhardt and Parrot, two Prussian travellers, by a series of fifty-one barometrical observations, made along the distance of 711 miles, from the Caspian to the Black Sea, ascertained the former to be 334 English feet below the level of the latter, which completely oversets the supposition of any subterranean communication existing between those seas. By the same mode may be traced a profile or vertical section, that shall exhibit at one glance the great features of a country. As a specimen, I have combined and reduced the sections which the celebrated philosophic traveller Humboldt has given of the continent of America, running in a twisted direction from Acapulco to Vera Cruz, and connecting the Pacific with the Atlantic Ocean.

A ACAPULCO.
a *Peregrino.*
B CHILPANSINGO.
b *Mescala.*
c *Tepecuacuilco.*
d *Puente de Istla.*
C CUERNAVACA.
e *La Cruz del Marques.*
D MEXICO.
f *Venta de Chalco.*
g *St Martin.*
E LA PUEBLA DE LOS ANGELES.
h *El Pinal.*
i *Perote.*
k *Cruz Blanca.*
F XALAPA.
G VERA CRUZ.



The divided scale expresses the horizontal distance in miles, while the parallels, on a much larger scale, mark the elevation in feet. This profile is really composed of four successive sections, which are distinguished by opposite shadings. The survey proceeded first along the road from Acapulco to Mexico, thence to Puebla de los Angeles, next to Cruz Blanca, and finally to Vera Cruz. These several directions and distances are expressed in the ground plan.

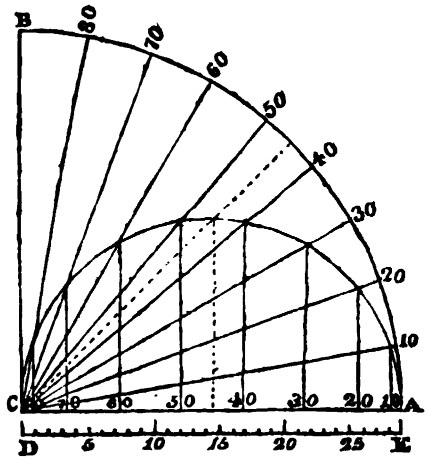
An attempt is likewise made in this profile, to convey some idea of the geological structure of the external crust:

Limestone is represented by straight lines slightly inclined from the horizontal position.

Basalt, by straight lines slightly reclined from the perpendicular.

Porphyry, by waved lines somewhat reclined.
Granite, by confused hatches.
Amygdaloid, by confused points.

But the easiest way of estimating within moderate limits the elevation of a country, is founded on the difference between the standard and the actual mean temperature as indicated by deep wells or copious and shaded springs. Professor Mayer of Göttingen, from a comparison of distant observations on the surface of the globe, proposed a *formula*, which, with a slight modification, appears to exhibit correctly the temperature of any place at the level of the sea. Let ϕ denote the latitude; and $29 \cos\phi^2$, or $14\frac{1}{2}$ *suvers* 2ϕ, will express, in degrees of the centigrade scale, the medium heat on the coast. But the gradations of climate are more easily conceived by help of a geometrical diagram. From the centre C, draw straight lines to the several degrees of the quadrant, and cutting the interior semicircle; then the radius CA denoting 29°, the perpendiculars from the points of section will intercept segments proportional to the mean temperature expressed on DE.



The higher regions are invariably colder than the plains; and I have been able, after a delicate and patient research, to fix the law which connects the decrease of temperature with the altitude. If B and b denote the barometric pressure at the lower and upper stations; then will $\left(\frac{B}{b}-\frac{b}{B}\right) 25$ express, on the centigrade scale, the diminution of heat in ascent. Hence, for any given latitude, that precise point of elevation

may be found, at which eternal frost prevails. Put $x = \frac{b}{B}$ and $t =$ the standard temperature; then $\left(\frac{1}{x} - x\right) 25 = t$, or $x^2 + .04\,tx = 1$, which quadratic equation being resolved, gives the relative elasticity of the air at the limit of congelation, whence the corresponding height is determined. From these data the opposite table has been calculated.

This table will facilitate the approximation to the altitude of any place, which is inferred either from its mean temperature, or its depth below the boundary of perpetual congelation. The decrements of heat at equal ascents are not altogether uniform, but advance more rapidly in the higher regions of the atmosphere. At moderate elevations, however, it will be sufficiently near the truth, to assume the law of equable progression, allowing in this climate one degree of cold by Fahrenheit's scale for every ninety yards of ascent, and for every hundred yards in the tropical regions. Thus, the temperatures of the Crawley and Black springs on the ridge of the Pentland hills, were observed by Mr Jardine, where they first issue from the ground, to be 46°.2 and 45°; which, compared with the standard temperature at the same parallel of latitude, would give 567 and 891 feet of elevation above the sea. The real heights found by levelling were respectively 564 and 882; a coincidence most surprising and satisfactory.—This ready mode of estimation claims especially the attention of agriculturists.

Dr Francis Buchanan Hamilton informs me, that he found the temperature of a spring at Chitlong, in the Lesser Valley of Népal, to be 14°.7 centigrade. But the mean temperature in the parallel of 27°.38′ being 22°.8′, the density of the atmosphere corresponding to difference 8°.1, is .8510, which gives 4500 feet for the corrected altitude. From other observations of the same accurate traveller, we may conclude that Kathmandre, the capital of Népal, is elevated about 2780 feet above the level of the sea. I found myself the temperature of the celebrated fountain of Vaucluse, which gushes with such volume as to form almost immediately a respectable river, to be 13° centigrade, or 2° less than what corresponds to its latitude, or 43°.55′. It may hence be inferred, that Vaucluse is 1080 feet above the level of the Mediterranean.

Latitude.	Mean temperature at the level of the Sea. Centigrade	Fahrenheit.	Height of Curve of Congelation. Feet.
0	29°.00	84°.2	15207
1	28.99	84.2	15203
2	28.96	84.1	15189
3	28.92	84.0	15167
4	28.86	83.9	15135
5	28.78	83.8	15095
6	28.68	83.6	15047
7	28.57	83.4	14989
8	28.44	83.2	14923
9	28.29	82.9	14848
10	28.13	82.6	14764
11	27.94	82.3	14672
12	27.75	82.0	14571
13	27.53	81.6	14463
14	27.30	81.1	14345
15	27.06	80.7	14220
16	26.80	80.2	14087
17	26.52	79.7	13947
18	26.23	79.2	13798
19	25.93	78.	13642
20	25.61	78.1	13478
21	25.28	77.5	13308
22	24.93	76.9	13131
23	24.57	76.2	12946
24	24.20	75.6	12755
25	23.82	74.9	12557
26	23.43	74.2	12354
27	23.02	73.6	12145
28	22.61	72.7	11930
29	22.18	71.9	11710
30	21.75	71.1	11484
31	21.31	70.3	11253
32	20.86	69.5	11018
33	20.40	68.7	10778
34	19.93	67.9	10534
35	19.46	67.0	10287
36	18.98	66.2	10036
37	18.50	65.3	9781
38	18.01	64.4	9523
39	77.51	63.5	9263
40	17.02	62.6	9001
41	16.52	61.7	8738
42	16.02	60.8	8473
43	15.51	59 9	8206
44	15.01	59.0	7939
45	14.50	58.1	7671
46°	13°.99	57.2	7402
47	13.49	56.3	7133
48	12.98	55.4	6865
49	12.43	54.5	6599
50	11.98	53.6	6334
51	11.49	52.7	6070
52	10.99	51.8	5808
53	10.50	50.9	5548
54	10.02	50.0	5290
55	9.54	49.2	5034
56	9.07	48.3	4782
57	8.60	47.5	4534
58	8.14	46.6	4291
59	7.69	45.8	4052
60	7.25	45.0	3818
61	6.82	44.3	3589
62	6.39	43.5	3365
63	5.98	42.8	3145
64	5.57	42.0	2930
65	5.18	41.3	2722
66	4.80	40.6	2520
67	4.43	40.0	2325
68	4.07	39.3	2136
69	3.72	38.7	1953
70	3.39	38.1	1778
71	3.07	37.5	1611
72	2.77	37.0	1451
73	2.48	36.5	1298
74	2.20	36.0	1153
75	1.94	35.5	1016
76	1.70	35.1	887
77	1.47	34.6	767
78	1.25	34.2	656
79	1.06	33.9	552
80	.87	33.6	457
81	.71	33.3	371
82	.56	33.1	294
83	.43	32.8	226
84	.32	32.6	167
85	.22	32.4	117
86	.14	32.3	76
87	.08	32.2	44
88	.04	32.1	20
89	.01	32.0	5
90	.00	32.0	0

I shall now subjoin a concise table of the most remarkable heights in different parts of the world, expressed in English feet. The altitudes measured by the barometer are marked B, while those derived from geometrical operations, and taken chiefly from the observations of General Mudge, are distinguished by the letter G.

Snæ Fiall Jokul, *on the north-west point of Iceland,*	4558 G
Hekla, *volcanic mountain in Iceland,* - -	3950 G
Sulitelma, *in Lapland,* - - -	5910 B
Nuppi Vara, *the highest of the table-land in Lapland,*	2655 B
Lommijauri, *elevated lake in Lapland,* -	2265 B
Drifstue, *the highest pastoral hamlet in Norway,*	2457 B
Snähätta, *centre of the Norwegian mountains,* -	8120 B
Harebacke, *Alpine ridge of Norway,* - -	4575 B
Pap of Caithness, - - - - -	1929
Ben Nevis, *Inverness-shire, highest mountain in Scotland,*	4358 G
Cairngorm, *Inverness-shire,* - - -	4080 B
Cairnsmuir *upon Deugh, Galloway,* - -	2597 G
Ben Lawers, *west side of Loch Tay, Perthshire,*	3944 G
Ben More, *Perthshire,* - - -	3870 B
Ben Lui, *or* the *Calf, near Tyndrum,* - -	3651 G
Schihallien, *Perthshire,* - - -	3513 G
Ben Vorlich, *near Loch Earn,* - -	3207 G
Ben Ledi, *near Callender, Perthshire,* - -	2863 G
Ben Achonzie, *head of Glen Tilt,* - -	3028 G
Ben Lomond, *near Aberfoil, Stirlingshire,* -	3191 G
Cobbler, *near Arrochar,* - - - - -	2863 G
Ben Clach, *in the Ochils, above Alloa,* -	2359 G
Lomond Hills, east and west, *Fifeshire,*	1466 and 1721 G
Soutra Hill, *on the ridge of Lammermuir,* -	1716 G
Coulter Fell, *Lanarkshire,* - - - - -	2440 G
Carnethy, *high point of the Pentland ridge,* -	1700 B
Tintoc Hill, *Lanarkshire,* - - - - -	2306 G
Leadhills, *the house of the Director of the mines,*	1280 B
Broad Law, *near Crook Inn, Peebles-shire,* -	2741 G
Queensbery Hill, *Dumfries-shire,* - -	2259 G
Cairnsmuir of Fleet, *Galloway,* - -	2329 G
Hert Fell, *near Moffat,* - - - - -	2635 G
Dunrich Hill, *Roxburghshire,* - - -	2421 G

Elden Hills, *near Melrose, Roxburghshire,* -	1364 G
Whitcomb Hill, *Peebles-shire,* - -	2685 G
Lother Hill, *Dumfries-shire,* - - -	2396 G
Ailsa Rock, *in the Firth of Clyde,* - -	1103 G
Crif Fell, *near New Abbey, Kirkcudbright,* -	1831 G
Kells Range, *Galloway,* - - -	2659 G
Goat Fell, *in the Isle of Arran,* - - -	2865 G
Paps of Jura, south and north, *in Argyllshire,*	2359 and 2470
Snea Fell, *in the Isle of Man,* - -	2004 G
South Berule, *in Isle of Man,* - -	1584 G
Macgillicuddy's Reeks, *County of Kerry,* -	3404
Sliebh Donard, *the highest of the Mourne Mountains,*	2786 G
Helvellyn, *Cumberland,* - - -	3055 G
Skiddaw, *Cumberland,* - - -	3022 G
Saddleback, *Cumberland,* - - - -	2787 G
Whernside, *Yorkshire,* - - -	2384 G
Ingleborough, *Yorkshire,* - - -	2361 G
Shunnor Fell, *Yorkshire,* - - - -	2329 G
Snowdon, *Caernarvonshire,* - - -	3571 G
Cader Idris, *Caernarvonshire,* - - -	2914 G
Beacons of Brecknock, - - - -	2862 G
Plynlimmon, *Cardiganshire,* - - - -	2463 G
Penmaen Mawr, *Caernarvonshire,* - -	1540 G
Malvern Hills, *Worcestershire,* - -	1444 G
Cawsand Beacon, *Devonshire,* - - -	1792 G
Rippin Tor, *Devonshire,* - - - -	1549 G
Brocken, *in the Hartz-forest, Hanover,* - -	3690
Priel, *in Upper Austria,* - - - -	7000 B
Peak of Lomnitz, *in the Carpathian ridge,* -	8870 B
Terglou, *in Carniola,* - - - -	10390 B
Mont Blanc, *Switzerland,* - - - -	15646 G
Village of Chamouni, *below Mont Blanc,* -	3367 G
Jungfrauhorn, *Switzerland,* - - - -	13730
St Gothard, *Switzerland,* - -	9075
Hospice of the Great St Bernard, - -	8040 B
Village of St Pierre, *on the road to Great St Bernard,*	5338 B
Passage of Mont Cenis, - -	6778 B
Cross-Glockner, *between the Tyrol and Carinthia,*	12780 B
Ortler Spitze, *in the Tyrol,* - -	15430

Rigiberg, *above the lake of Lucerne,* -	5408
Dôle, *the highest point of the chain of Jura,* -	5412 B
Mont Perdu, *in the Pyrenees,* - -	11283
Loneira, *in the department of the high Alps,* -	14451
Peak of Arbizon, *in the department of the high Pyrenees,*	8344
Puy de Dome, *in Auvergne,* - -	4858 G
Mont d'Or, - - -	6202 G
Summit of Vaucluse, *near Avignon,* - -	2150
Village on Mont Genevre, - -	5945 B
St Pilon, *near Marseilles,* - -	3295 G
Soracte, *near Rome,* - - -	2271 G
Monte Velino, *in the kingdom of Naples,* -	8397 G
Mount Vesuvius, *volcanic mountain beside Naples,*	3978
Ætna, *volcanic mountain in Sicily,* -	10963 B
St Angelo, *in the Lipari Islands,* - -	5260
Top of the Rock of Gibraltar, - -	1439 B
Mount Athos, *in Rumelia,* - -	3353
Diana's Peak, *in the Island of St Helena,* -	2692
Peak of Teneriffe, *one of the Canary Islands,* -	12358 B
Ruivo Peak, *the highest point of Madeira,* -	5162
Table Mountain, *near the Cape of Good Hope,*	3520
Chain of Mount Ida, *beyond the plain of Troy,*	4960
Chain of Mount Olympus, *in Anatolia,* -	6500
Italitzkoi, *in the Altaic chain,* - -	10735
Awatsha, *volcanic mountain in Kamtchatka,* -	9600
The Volcano, *in the Isle of Bourbon,* - -	7680
Ophir, *in the centre of the Island of Sumatra,*	13842
St Elias, *on the western coast of North America,*	12672
White Mountain, *in the State of Massachusets,*	6230 B
Chimborazo, *highest summit of the Andes,* -	21440 B
Antisana, *volcanic mountain in the kingdom of Quito,*	19150 B
Shepherd station on that mountain, -	13500 B
Cotopaxi, *volcanic mountain in the kingdom of Quito,*	18890 B
Tonguragua, *volcanic mountain, near Riobomba,*	16579 B
Rucu de Pichincha, *in the kingdom of Quito,* -	15940 B
Heights of Assuay, *the ancient Peruvian road,*	15540 B
Peak of Orizaba, *volcanic mountain east from Mexico,*	17390 G
Lake of Toluca, *in the kingdom of Mexico,* -	12195 B
City of Quito, - - -	9560 B

City of Mexico, - - -	7476 B
Silla de Caraccas, *part of the chain of Venezuela,*	8640 B
Blue Mountains, *in the Island of Jamaica,* -	7431
Pelée, *in the Island of Martinique,* - -	5100
Morne Garou, *in the Island of St Vincent's,* -	5050

In this list of altitudes, I have not ventured to insert the Himalaya or Snowy Mountains, the Imaus of the ancients, or Great Central Chain of Upper Asia, to which some late accounts from India would assign the stupendous elevation from 23,000 to 27,600 feet. Such at least are the results of observations made with a small sextant and an artificial horizon, at the enormous distance of 226 or 232 miles, as computed indeed from very short bases. But even with the best instruments, and under the most favourable circumstances, the determination of minute vertical angles is, from the influence of horizontal refraction, liable to much uncertainty. The progress of accurate observation has uniformly reduced the estimated altitudes of mountains. More recent statements accordingly diminish those heights near 2000 feet.

I shall conclude with briefly stating the French measures. The Parisian foot is to the English, or the *toise* to the fathom, as 1.065777 to 1, or nearly as 16 to 15. The *metre*, or base of the new system, and equal to 39.371 English inches, ascends decimally, forming the *decametre* or *perch*, the *hectometre*, the *kilometre* or *mile*, and the *myriametre* or *league* equivalent to 6.213856 of our miles; and descending by the same scale, it forms successively the *decimetre* or *palm*, the *centimetre* or *digit*, and the *millimetre* or *stroke*. The square of the *decametre* constitutes the *are*, and that of the *hectametre*, the *hectare* or *acre*, and equal to 2.47117 English acres. The cube of a *metre*, or 35.3171 feet, forms the unit of solid measure or the *stere*, that of a *decimetre*, or 61.028 inches forming the *litre* or *pint*; and the weight of this bulk of water at its greatest contraction makes the *kilogramme* or *pound*, equivalent of 12.133 pounds Troy, the *gramme* answering to 15.444 grains.

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